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Time for Meditation

THIS ISSUE does not develop a theme. At the recommendation of the Editor and in turn the Publications Committee the Board last year endorsed the proposal that one issue per year be a non-theme issue. The request was made because of the large number of articles being received by the Editor—articles that had not been solicited to develop a theme.

In this issue without a theme there are four articles about individualization of reading instruction. These four articles represent proportionately among the total submitted the number being devoted to this method and its philosophy. It seems that this number reflects on a nationwide basis the amount of interest in this approach.

A fifth article is about the need for a "total approach" to reading instruction. The author of this article sees individualization of reading instruction as one approach in a "total approach." It seems that this proportion—one article out of five—tends to reflect among writers of articles the interest in a multiple method approach to reading instruction.

In both kinds of articles there is expressed a dissatisfaction with the exclusive use of basic readers for reading instruction. Of much interest is the fact that over and over again advocates of an all-out or a partial program of individualization keep repeating the statement being made by children who have participated in such programs, "At last reading is interesting." If this is the

case then it represents a severe indictment.

Two of the articles in this issue report experiments. We need more articles of this kind. Both articles convey the impression that not all is well. It seems that while the basal reader lockstep has short-comings the use of only an individualized approach is not the answer either.

What is needed is research that has even tighter controls. For instance the Editor raises two questions about the experiments reported in this issue. Would not teachers who prepare for an experiment by "studying carefully the best references on the individualized method" most likely differ considerably from those who have practiced the method for a number of years?

Furthermore should it be thought that if knowledge about an experiment results in greater enthusiasm and in turn greater achievement that teachers who do not know they are being studied do not perform on the same high level? Or should it be thought that if enthusiasm in behalf of an individualized method results in greater achievement, that similar enthusiasm in behalf of a basic reader might not yield equally as great a spurt in achievement?

Is it not true that what is needed is to train children who have acquired both a love for reading and the skill to read efficiently? Might it not be best then to combine as effectively as possible techniques that tend to accomplish both objectives?

—R.G.S.

We Need a Total Approach to Reading

by MORTON BOTEL

• BUCKS COUNTY, PENNSYLVANIA,
SCHOOLS

WE KNOW a prominent college professor of reading, Dr. L., who told an audience of teachers quite bluntly: "Throw your basal readers out of the window."

Throughout his colorful and satirical attack against basal readers, he characterized them as "inane," "insipid," "anemic," and as "breeders of conformity."

Wherever he observed basal reader lessons, "they were characterized by turn-by-turn oral reading at sight and questioning which placed a premium on verbal regurgitation of unimportant facts." Having thus disposed of the enemy, he proceeded to show why the "Individualized Reading" program was the superior approach to reading instruction.

Following the meeting, an equally prominent reading consultant, Dr. M., complained bitterly: "What a dreamer! I have seen these classes where they worship at the shrine of 'Individualized Reading.' If you want to see some hectic disorganized teaching of reading, you should visit these classes. The typical teacher of 'Individualized Reading,'" he scoffed, "handles comprehension, vocabulary, and phonics instruction incidentally rather than systematically, which means that there is, in fact, no skill building program. A sound basal reading program is still the best answer to competent reading instruction."

To date, a great deal has been done to improve reading instruction through the efforts of many persons. Despite this fact, most competent investigators believe we have barely scratched the surface in reading, even in our best school systems. But arguments after the fashion of Dr. L. and Dr. M. seem almost as foolish to us as those of a group of nutritionists arguing over the validity of one vitamin over the others. Clearly, no one reading series, individualized reading plan, phonics system, grouping system, or *single* program is the solution to the massive task involved in achieving the objectives of a comprehensive reading program.

A Total Approach

What is needed, we believe, is a "total approach" to reading. This total approach is nothing more than a plan to integrate the finest materials, methods, organizational plans, and inservice education into a unified package.

To initiate a total approach to reading, the total staff of a school system, including administrators, supervisors, librarians, teachers, and guidance personnel, need first to think creatively about such big questions as the following: How can we help make reading the lifelong habit of our students? How can we help teachers place students in basal readers and other textbooks at their cor-

rect instructional level? How can we improve the reading comprehension and interpretation of our students? How can we improve the phonics program? How can we help students to study more efficiently?

In the material to follow, each of the five questions is discussed. Then an example is given of a school system working toward a total approach.

Reading As a Lifelong Habit

Items to consider. (1) Fewer than 10 per cent of the elementary schools in the country have a separate library room or a librarian; nor do they approach the American Library Association standard of ten library books per student. The secondary situation is better, but far from ideal. There are still over 20 per cent of secondary schools with no separate library. (2) It seems to be the exceptional teacher who provides definite periods of time for browsing and reading during school hours. (3) Even where there is a school library, students tend to stop reading during the summer. Result: many students "rust out" over the summer and require several weeks of stimulation to recover lost ground. (4) It has been variously reported that 50 to 75 per cent of teachers do not have the lifetime habit of reading. They report they have not read as much as one book of fiction or non-fiction per year.

Correct Instructional Level

Item to consider. Prominent investigators estimate that 25 to 35 per cent of the students in most of the

schools in this country are reading in books which are too difficult for them and which restrict their reading progress and interest. At the other extreme, at least 10 per cent of our students are said to be reading in materials which offer no challenge. The reason for this condition is that most teachers place all students in books at grade level or use standardized test grade equivalent scores as the criterion for placement. This is done in spite of research supported criteria for establishing the "instructional level" of students. This research indicates that students should be reading in books in which they comprehend between 75 and 95 per cent of the ideas and recognize 95 to 99 per cent of the words.

Comprehension and Interpretation

Items to consider. (1) Growth in reading comprehension is, to a large extent, a function of creative questioning by which the teacher points the minds of her students to main ideas, relationships, subtle meanings, semantic variations, inferences, and appreciations. (2) Nowhere has the reason for mediocre comprehension been more forcefully stated than in the following comment found in an article on "Creative Inquiry" in the *Saturday Review*, November 21, 1959: "The major teaching techniques used in schools are still but variants of the 'teacher ask-pupil tell' type. Requests for information of the 'What is . . . , ' 'How much is . . . , ' 'When did . . . , ' 'Where is . . . , ' type constitute the bulk of

classroom dialogue and these questions are satisfied when the pupil gives the correct name."

The Phonics Program

Items to consider. Despite our defensive posture when we are attacked by lay experts, and despite the integration of phonics in basal reading programs, it appears that few teachers know the generalizations and principles of phonics instruction, their sequential relationship, and how best to teach them to students.

More Efficient Study

Item to consider. Strange as it may seem, while students are expected to spend many hours at study, few schools actually teach them how to study. Even superior high school and college students often are ineffective in such fundamental areas of study as management of time, previewing, using signals, raising questions, note taking, preparing for and taking examinations, remembering, problem solving, and using resources.

A Total Approach in the Pennsbury Schools

The Pennsbury Schools of Bucks County, Pennsylvania, as a result of continuous creative deliberation and experimentation, are working toward a total approach to reading instruction. Here are some of the key practices of the program.

Promoting the lifelong habit of reading. 1. Completely equipped library rooms (served by a full-time librarian) have been established in

every elementary school. In addition, every classroom has a classroom library of sixty or more titles at, above, and below the grade level.

2. Well equipped and well staffed libraries serve each secondary building.

3. The first four to six weeks of school are devoted to an all-out wide reading program. No basals are given out during this period except to slow groups which have no independent reading level.

4. Definite periods of time are established for wide reading throughout the year. In addition, each student is expected to have a library book with him all the time and turn to this book whenever he has completed other work.

5. Workshops have been held to help teachers gain proficiency in guiding students in book selection, in discussion of independent reading, and in record keeping.

6. Libraries are kept open throughout the summer.

7. Students are expected to read at least several hours at home each week.

8. Every class visits the library for story hour, browsing, or library instruction at least one hour per week.

Insuring proper placement of instructional materials. 1. Teachers give a locally prepared variation of an informal reading inventory at the beginning and end of the year to establish the instructional level of each student. These results, observation of students during the wide reading program, and other pertinent data, are used to place students

in basal readers, *Weekly Readers*, and other library, text, and reference books.

2. Principals collaborate with teachers in checking each reading group as it is advanced from one reading level to another by listening to students read aloud, by checking their independent work in workbooks, and by other informal means.

Improving comprehension, phonics, and study skills. Inservice meetings, reading courses, pre-school orientation of new teachers, conferences, visitations, and other professional development activities are held

continually to help teachers develop greater competency in teaching all the skills and cultivating the desirable attitudes of reading and study.

We have attempted in this paper to contrast a narrow view of reading instruction, which has seemed to divide many educators into enemy camps, with what we call a "total approach." Fundamentally, this broader approach merely recognizes that excellence in reading is not the result of installing a program, but rather it is the product of a coordinated, thoughtful, continual, total staff activity.

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An Experiment in Reading by Invitation in Grades One Through Four

by GLORIA G. RITTENHOUSE
• AKRON, OHIO, PUBLIC SCHOOLS

READING by invitation became a reality the past two years in four Akron, Ohio, public classrooms. The idea of experimenting with reading by invitation grew from a presentation in the classroom by Dr. Kathleen B. Hester, Professor of Education, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan, at a workshop at The University of Akron, Akron, Ohio.

In Dr. Hester's program of reading by invitation children formulate their own reading groups as their needs indicate. According to Dr. Hester's pure form of reading by invitation, the children are told during the pupil-teacher planning period that they may join any or several of the reading groups. The children are not assigned to any particular reading group, but must be adequately motivated by the ingenious teacher to visit with one or all of the three reading groups. A child can be invited to join a group either by the teacher or by another child. Centers of interest are provided for the children who are engaged in other activities and for those who are too immature for a directed lesson. Once a week a sweep-check vocabulary test is given, and each child may tell a story he has read, or he may read a story from the blackboard which shows the new words introduced during the week.

The writer and experimenting teachers, however, felt more secure with a modified version of reading by invitation based on the flexible three-group pattern of fast, average, and immature readers which functioned partly as an attracting nucleus.

Two hundred thirty-four children took part in the study over the two-year period. Grade levels ranged from kindergarten through the fourth grade. The kindergarten level was not included in the second and concluding year of the study.

The kindergarten group came from a school composed of children whose parents were largely from the professional group. Children from grades one through three were from a school population whose parents were mainly factory workers, both skilled and unskilled. The parents of the third school, from which the grade four pupils came, were largely from laboring forces.

The study was planned on a two-year semester-rotational basis beginning with the spring semester of 1957-58. During the preceding fall semester routines were established so that fundamental tasks could be accomplished with a minimum of frustration for the child. The regular three-group situation was used in the fall semester. The children were able to shift from one group to another as their needs indicated.

Procedure

In January of each year of the study a letter was sent to the parents of the children in grades one through four informing them of the planned program. The children of each grade discussed with the experimenting teachers the modified procedures which were to be followed. The children understood that they could be visitors and come to or leave at will all reading classes except the one to which they were assigned. It was particularly appealing to those in the lower reading groups because the program offered the opportunity to participate with groups on a higher level. Those who wanted to attend all reading groups were advised to budget their time carefully in order to complete assigned seatwork for which each class was accountable. It was also necessary to establish cooperatively conceived rules and regulations governing visitations.

The experimenting teachers were then assured of a nucleus for each reading group. The nucleus, in turn, stimulated others to share in the experience of learning together, and served as the necessary stimuli, in addition to teacher motivation, to encourage those children who might have hesitated because of withdrawal tendencies.

The class enrollment in the groups in this experiment ranged between twenty-three and thirty-seven. The reading levels were not always uniform; so individual reading classes varied in size. However, the nucleus of each group was not more than twelve or fifteen at any time.

The California Reading Test, Form W, was administered the first week of February of both years in grades one through four as additional criteria for reorganizing a tentative three-group pattern. Beginning in February and ending in May, a modified check list of the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty was also used to summarize the reading weaknesses of each child.

In May the children were again given the parallel series of the California Reading Test, Form X. Notations were also made on the check list to check for growth.

On the kindergarten level the invitational procedure was employed in all activities. The children were given the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test as an index of their sensory and perceptual abilities basic to reading readiness. A check list was also available for each child as a guide in strengthening pertinent vital areas in the pre-reading program. The parallel series of the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test was not administered in May. The kindergarten level was omitted the second year of the study.

Visitors. The number of visitors who responded to the invitation to come to each reading group was recorded daily. Ten to fifteen guests came at the onset of the experiment. Later, four to six visitors participated who were able to complete assigned work.

The Data

Each year of the study the May raw scores of the California Reading Test were matched with the Febru-

ary scores and arranged from the highest to the lowest score in grades one through four.

In comparing points gained in the first grade during the first year of the experiment, twelve children were found who gained ten or more points. There were also twelve children the second year. There was an element of difference, however, in the number of points gained. The greatest number of points gained the first year was twenty-three; the greatest number the second year was forty-four. Growth was not due to chance in that grade either year, since the gain in points was statistically significant within 99 per cent confidence limits at the 1 per cent level.

In grade two there were six children who gained ten or more points by the close of the experiment the first year, with seventeen points the greatest gain, and there were eight children the second year with a high of twenty-six points gained. Statistically speaking, growth was not due to chance either year in accordance with the null hypothesis. However, more significant gains were made the first year rather than the second. There were two extreme negative scores on this level the second year. There seemed to be no explanation for this outcome.

In the third grade the low critical ratios for both years indicated that growth *was* due to chance, the results of the second year being more negative than the first. The experimenting teacher was unable to define the second year results because some of the children had been exposed to

reading by invitation the previous year. Grades one through three were in the same building. The experimenting teacher on that level felt that needs were more adequately satisfied for those who visited with additional reading groups, though statistical results were insignificant.

There were thirteen fourth-grade children who gained ten or more points the first year of the experiment. The critical ratio indicated that growth was not due to chance at the 99 per cent confidence limits at the 1 per cent level. The results of the second year were more significant. There were twenty-three children who gained ten or more points. A critical ratio of 9.57 indicated the very remote possibility of gain due to chance. The experimenting teacher attributed extreme negative scores to the adverse influence of the home environment. Growth at the fourth-grade level was more significant statistically than at the other grade levels. Enrichment for the children in that group was in the form of creative expression in writing, project work individually or as a group when reading for information was required, and recreational reading. Children in other groups were able to participate in those activities as the opportunity arose.

Children in the average group did the least amount of visiting. They seemed to need the security of their own group. Those in the average group who visited had the potentiality to move ahead.

Children on the immature level visited in large numbers during the

first few weeks of the experiment. They eventually eliminated themselves because of insight into their own inadequacies. Again, those who were on the borderline in the immature group visited with the group on the succeeding level to advance. Many on the immature level found satisfaction in visiting momentarily with other reading groups. The freedom to come and go at will provided them with a feeling of acceptance which was vital to their social and emotional adjustment. This minute contact with children in upper levels was a type of satisfaction in that immature children were able to join those in other levels in all phases of the curriculum.

Comments

Reading by invitation presents an aspect in the teaching of reading that accentuates free movement for the child to participate with the group that best meets his needs.

The child who possesses a love for reading can find satisfaction in visiting with all reading groups even if all groups are reading from the same basic series. It is more stimulating for visitors, however, if each group has access to a different series.

Those who have been absent are able to readjust easily in visiting with all groups. Although individual help can be given either by the teacher or a pupil-helper, individual and group instruction is as much a part of reading by invitation as it is in other methods of instruction.

The consensus of opinion of the experimenting teachers was that the most significant contribution of reading by invitation was in the children's ability to recognize both their weak and strong areas. Reading by invitation also offers the child further opportunity to assert himself in obtaining optimum growth at his level. It provides a wealth of experience in reading for all children.

Books on Exhibit

It is practically impossible for teachers and librarians to examine the tremendous number of new books published for young people every year. This, undoubtedly, is the reason why Books on Exhibit, a free exhibit of six hundred new books for all grades, has been greeted with enthusiasm.

Started in 1952, Books on Exhibit, Incorporated, directed by E. G. Wood, circulated two sets of books, selections of sixteen different publishing houses, under the title Junior Library Books. This year at least one set is available for each state, and the exhibit represents the output of twenty-eight publishers. It is anticipated that a thousand or more separate exhibits will be scheduled during the 1959-1960 school year; 850 will be held in school systems.

The exhibit is unique in that it goes to the teacher and librarian. There are no fees or obligations, no orders are solicited or accepted, and a supply of covering catalogs is provided without charge. Those who wish to make purchases do so through local jobbers.

Administrators who want to discover how teachers in their district can see the exhibit are advised to write to Mr. E. G. Wood, North Bedford Road, Mount Kisco, New York.

A Bibliography on Individualized Reading

by HARRY W. SARTAIN

• ROSEVILLE, MINNESOTA, PUBLIC SCHOOLS

EVERWHERE elementary teachers are asking about the "new" individualized reading approach. Is it an infelicitous fad or is it the answer to a teacher's anguished prayers?

Although the surge of interest in the method is relatively new, Stauffer (32) has indicated that the underlying principles for this type of individualization were advanced by the National Society for the Study of Education in 1923. In 1937 Washburne (35) encouraged teachers to individualize reading instruction after the first grade, and the 1938 yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals included several descriptions of such practices (42, 45, 57).

Opinions Differ

Today the interested teacher can consult a considerable number of helpful sources on classroom procedures (39-74). Two of these are book-length collections prepared by Miel (63) and Veatch (72). An outstanding list of learning activities by Sharpe (68) was published in *Elementary English*.

In answer to his questions the teacher will find strongly divergent opinions. While Harris (13) recommends a carefully controlled sequence of books for early reading, Veatch (33) doubts the value of controlled vocabulary. Maib (23) recommends individualization with

large classes in the first grade, but Crossley and Kniley (44) felt it necessary to return to grouping when the class size jumped. Wilt (37) and Jacobs (63) indicate that individualized work does not pre-suppose a laissez-faire attitude; however, several descriptions of programs of infrequent brief conferences cause one to wonder about the thoroughness of skills work. McNabb (26) observes that only superior teachers and capable students are fully successful with the method.

Most of the enthusiasts recommend dropping the basal reader program entirely, but several teachers (30, 43, 59, 67) have found that a combination of basal and individualized reading is more desirable. Techniques for teaching basic skills individually are especially well explained by Cavanaugh (41).

One writer comments that individual conferences produce a better learning climate (36); and Olson's principles of seeking, self-selection, and pacing are often quoted in support of this (28, 29). In classes where self-selection and individual conferences have been tried, interests of the children have been greatly stimulated according to reports by Brant (4), Fitts (10), Mays (24), and others (49, 60, 70).

The Research Is Meager

When he seeks the facts the teach-

er finds little in the way of scientific evidence. Five action research experiments have been reported. One teacher concluded that children in a first grade made greater progress and enjoyed reading more when instruction was individualized (4). Bohnhorst and Sellars (2) reported an experiment in which five primary teachers put only their most capable readers in an individualized program for eight weeks; they did not gain significantly more than during eight weeks of work in basic groups. Two of the teachers, however, seemed convinced that the experimental approach was better.

Jenkins (17) has described action research studies in several classes in three schools where an individualized approach was compared with a conventional three-group program. One principal stated that the experimental gains for her classes were appreciably greater, while another principal found much the opposite result.

Two additional studies have compared the progress of groups participating in individualized and in basal reader programs. Hilson and Thomas (15) found no real differences in the gains of one experimental first-grade and two control classes, although the experimental class seemed more enthusiastic about reading. Kaar (19), after studying the reading growth of third-grade classes in two different communities, concluded that those who worked in groups made slightly greater gains in vocabulary and comprehension.

Three studies that mention statistical analyses have been reported.

In one of the rare objective articles Karlin (20) has summarized a doctoral study done by Clare Walker (34). Two groups of children, matched on reading ability, I.Q., and socio-economic status, were taught by student teachers, one group with the basic reader method and the other with the individualized system. Although the latter group showed more interest and read more, there were no significant differences between the groups in their gains in reading abilities. Likewise in a brief note in *THE READING TEACHER* it was mentioned that Berdette (6) found no statistical differences in the gains of elementary grades employing these two methods, but that several teachers were enthusiastic about the experimental approach.

Progress of pupils in a laboratory school using an individualized reading program was compared by Anderson, Hughes, and Dixon (1) with progress in another school utilizing the basal reader group method. Although the average I.Q. was ten points lower in the second school, far more of the pupils under the basal program achieved satisfactory levels in reading.

What Course to Follow?

Although the scientific studies seem to indicate that self-selection alone is not the answer, dozens of enthusiastic advocates recount unusual successes. McCullough (25) cautions that children who are free to follow their own whims are naturally going to feel happier than those who receive intensive teaching. Re-

viewing the literature Witty (38) concludes that an adequate reading program must include the best features of both individualized and group instruction. Two other authorities, Gray (12) and Harris (13), seem to agree.

Confronted with these inconsistent views and findings, the teacher should weigh carefully the evidence already in and be alert to note new evidence, especially of an experimental and unbiased nature.

EDITOR'S NOTE: In this issue of THE READING TEACHER Dr. Sartain reports an experimental comparison of the two methods. *See also* other articles in this issue.

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(Continued on Page 270)

Evaluation of an Individualized Reading Program

by ALTON L. SAFFORD

• LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

HARDLY AN educational journal appears today without at least one article extolling the merits of self-selective reading. As a result of this general enthusiasm, local elementary school districts throughout the nation are showing an increased interest in this method of teaching reading. Specifically, with the support of the California Department of Education, and with the enthusiastic endorsement of the Los Angeles County Superintendent's Office of Education, many workshops and institutes have been held in Los Angeles County to demonstrate these new techniques and to discuss the advantages of this method for teaching reading. As a consequence many local assistant superintendents in charge of instruction have encouraged the teachers in their districts to adopt, or at least to experiment with, self-selective reading in their classrooms.

Despite the whole-hearted, enthusiastic endorsement of self-selective reading by so many authorities in this field, it was thought prudent to substantiate these claims within our own district. As Dr. Constance M. McCullough said in one of the few opinions in the literature expressing any reservations about these new methods for teaching this critically important skill: "In the meantime, have we, as citizens of a country struggling for survival in a highly

competitive world, the right to jeopardize the quality of education by the widespread use of an unproven method?" (1)

Hence, in June, 1958, as partial requirement for an M.S. in Education, an evaluation was made of the effectiveness of the self-selective reading program in one of the local elementary school districts.

Procedures

The school district lies in an unincorporated, middle upper-class residential community in Los Angeles County, bordering the southern edge of the San Gabriel Mountains, and it is made up of 72 classroom teachers in four elementary schools serving some 2,485 pupils from kindergarten through the sixth grade. A survey was made to locate all classes which had been taught during the past three years with individualized reading techniques.

The criteria for including a class in the study were: (1) whether or not all of the children in that class had the opportunity to select by and for themselves the books that they wanted to read during the regular reading period; (2) whether they read those books (silently or aloud, to themselves or to another child, or to and with the teacher—it did not matter) individually and mainly by themselves, as opposed to group situations where everyone reads either

silently or aloud out of the same book at the same time; and (3) whether or not the children of the class did read consistently in this individual fashion, periodically every day, all of the school year, as the regular reading program.

Such criteria did not mean that the teacher could not give help in reading, either individually or by temporarily forming groups to give instruction as needed in phonics, syllabication, consonant blends, accents, word attack, use of the dictionary, etc. The main criterion was not whether groups were formed or were not formed, but rather whether the groups were formed temporarily and for the purpose of specific instruction, and were not used to structure permanent group reading situations.

Seven such classes were identified: they included grades three, four, five, and six. The total number of children in the sample was 183. Growth in reading was measured by the reading section of the California Achievement Test Battery, Primary and Elementary, Form DD, which is administered in October of each year to all of the children in this district, grades two through six. The individual growth of each child in the above-defined sample was computed by subtracting his score made in October of the year of the study from his corresponding score of the following October, as he entered the succeeding grade.

Next, average, or mean growth, increments were computed for each of the seven classes in the sample.

These mean class increments were compared with the national norms of 1.0 years and with the district norms* of approximately 1.25 years of gain in reading.

Then comparisons were made between the reading gains of a group of 48 "superior" students, with I.Q.'s of 120 and above, and the gains of 76 "average" students with I.Q.'s of 90 to 110. (All I.Q. scores were derived from the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity, Elementary and Primary Batteries. These tests are administered generally every October to all children in this district in grades one, three, and five.) These two groups were taken from the total sample of 183 children and comprised all with I.Q. scores within those ranges.

Following that, a breakdown was made of the total reading scores of fifty students from two of the fourth grade classes, and a comparison was noted between their mean reading vocabulary gain and their mean reading comprehension gain.

Students who transferred into these classes during the school year, or who left, or who were not in the district the following year in October when the reading test was again administered, were dropped from the statistics of the study.

There were no retentions among the pupils in the sample classes.

Rationale

No effort was made to balance or

*From published data of the school district, "Report to the Board of Trustees," February, 1958.

to equate these seven classes with model or "normal" classes within the district. This study was not conceived as a "classical" experiment—like the Walker (3), McChristy (1), and other studies, where efforts were made to determine what *might* happen under a given set of circumstances—but as a survey of what *had* occurred with a given set of methods. The matched-sets-of-classes design was considered, but was rejected for the following reasons. It was thought that the very act of identifying, isolating, labeling, observing, and teaching and testing such matched classes would, of and in itself alone, sufficiently change the attitudes of the children about themselves and toward their work to such a degree as to significantly disturb and change their individual rates of learning. (To say nothing of effecting gross changes in the intensity, time, effort, and preparation spent by the teachers of such classes.)

In short, an observed class is not a normal class. The observer distinctly and often critically influences his field of observation. Briefly, it was thought that, in this case, the very effort to isolate and control the independent variables would introduce other and more complex and intangible variables than it would control and eliminate.

The seven classes of this study were all identified, labeled, and "observed" after the teaching was done and after the measurements of instruction were completed, not during or before. Also, all testing of the children in the sample classes was

done in the normal course of testing all of the pupils in the district. Furthermore, not even the teachers of the seven classes constituting the sample were themselves aware that at some time in the future their classes would be used as the basis for this study.

The author of this study and the members of the faculty committee who originally proposed this design deem the aforementioned delineations to be of some importance.

However, mean I.Q. scores for each of the seven classes were compared with the district mean of 117, and since the differences of those means, divided by the standard error of the differences of the same means were below the critical ratio of 2.58, the hypothesis that these seven classes were samples from the same total population of school children within the district—as regards their basic ability to learn, or to receive instruction, and, specifically, reading instruction—was considered tenable.

Results

GROWTH IN READING ACHIEVEMENT

Class	No.	Grade	Calif. Read. Score I*	Calif. Read. Score II	Mean Gain in Read.
1	21	3	4.20	4.63	.43
2	23	4	4.70	5.33	.63
3	27	4	5.16	5.67	.51
4	27	4	5.33	5.49	.16
5	31	5	7.10	7.38	.28
6	26	6	7.46	8.14	.68
7	28	6	7.04	7.83	.79

*Score I is the score received in October of the year entering the grade shown; Score II is the score made the following October upon entering the next grade.

From but a brief inspection of this table, two main observations may be made.

First, none of these seven classes, as a group, came even close to the national norm of a gain of 1.0 year, let alone to the district's higher norm of a gain of 1.25 years in total reading achievement.

Second, the statistics indicate that the children in each of these classes entered the grade in which they were taught reading by these new methods considerably above the national level of expectancy in that skill. It is the fact that these children, as a group, as a class, did not make more growth during that period of specialized reading instruction that is so pertinent. This fact becomes the substance of the conclusion of this study.

On the other hand, considered individually, of the total number of 183 children, 49, or 26.7 per cent did achieve a model gain of 1.0 or greater in total reading achievement. This left, however, some 73.3 per cent of the total sample who fell below what might be considered a national mean, or "average" gain in reading.

By separating the total sample into groups of children on the basis of their mental maturity scores, the following data were noted: The total mean reading gain for one year of the 48 "superior" students was .46, while the corresponding gain of the 76 "average" students was .366. This difference is statistically insignificant.

Not enough "below-average" students could be found to justify any conclusions about this method based upon an analysis of their gains.

In a comparison of the reading

vocabulary gains with the reading comprehension gains of the 50 children in two of the fourth-grade classes, it was noted that their mean reading vocabulary gain was .61 and their mean reading comprehension gain was .52 of a year's growth. This difference is statistically insignificant and could be due to chance.

Conclusions

It may tentatively be suggested that: (1) For the majority of the individual pupils in the seven classes, the use of individualized reading techniques resulted in lower gains in reading achievement over a period of one calendar year, when contrasted with the results of other methods of reading instruction that are currently being used in this district and throughout the nation. (2) The use of self-selective reading methods achieved no significantly different results with the superior students than with average students. (3) The use of individualized reading techniques resulted in no significant difference in growth between reading vocabulary and reading comprehension.

Speculative Considerations

Two questions immediately arise: Why has self-selective reading given such unsatisfactory measured results in this district? Are the self-selective reading plans, methods, and techniques that are now being used in the other, adjacent, elementary school districts actually working with the degree of success claimed?

It must be admitted that the con-

clusions of this study are in contradiction to conclusions based upon the results of several other studies in this field. However, all of the other studies, whose results imply the superiority of self-selective reading methods over the older, group methods of instruction were so designed that both the children and the teachers of the classes involved were keenly aware of the nature and implications of what they were doing.

It might now be profitable to carry on further studies of a similar design. It would be interesting to survey in other districts the results of individualized reading programs as used with other "unobserved" classes, where all of the teaching is finished and all of

the testing is done, where the children are now in junior high and high school, and the teachers themselves are shifted about in grade level or transferred out of the district. Certainly, the data are available.

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Therapeutic Tutoring of the Intellectually Adequate

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BRADLY DEFINED, *therapy* is acceleration in the existing pattern of growth (1). The goals of therapy are the promotion of growth toward maturity and the use of full potential at every given age. Two factors are involved in therapy: one, the exploration and release of intrapersonal potential toward a more adequate self-concept, and two, the increase of the means of expressing this potential in interpersonal relations.

Tutoring presupposes need for special instruction individually or in small groups. The task is to aid the individual to obtain skills usually obtained by the normal person in a classroom situation.

Therapeutic tutoring, then, is an effort to establish the situation and attitude essential for individual achievement. At its best, tutoring always has therapeutic value. Therapeutic tutoring consists "not in giving individual attention for its own sake, but in adapting the teaching to the specific needs of the person to be taught" (1, page 97).

Reasons are legion why learning in the group situation proves difficult for some children. Under or over motivation, too high a standard of performance, discouragement and fear of failure or fear of being too successful, sensory limitations, specific language disabilities, emotional immaturity or low frustration tolerance, inability to express or commu-

nicate readily, and "incompatibility of temperament" between the child and grade teacher. "Over and above and through all the other factors, hindering even many of the brightest pupils from doing as much as they are capable mentally of accomplishing, is the consciousness of the individual child of the presence and observation and contact of the group. The pupil with poor group reactions suffers doubly. Not only is he made uncomfortable by the centering of attention upon himself during his attempt to recite, but he is unable to think of himself as part of the group, to obey commands given to the group, or to take to himself any information or instruction imparted to the group as a whole (1, page 16).

Techniques in Therapeutic Tutoring

Diagnosis. The first step in any program of therapeutic tutoring is one of careful diagnosis. Family heredity and personal history, physical, emotional, and intellectual factors are all important in achieving success, and each must be thoughtfully considered. As no general medical prescription can answer all physical discomforts, neither can a tutoring program, as such, prove adequate for all learning difficulties.

When symptoms are reported, tests are first given to determine strengths of the three factors of the

learning process: (1) sense acuity (intake of information), (2) intelligence (association, memory and comprehension of information), and (3) expression of information, verbally or manually.

Tests for sense acuity include a telebinocular screening test to establish the degree of ability of the eyes to focus, fixate and fuse; an auditory test to determine acuity of response to tone, intensity, and value of sound; tests to determine the sensitivity of discrimination by finger tips and the facility of small muscular control (tactile and kinesthetic accuracy).

The Binet, Form L (for those below six years of age), or the Wechsler Intelligence Scale (for children six to sixteen), or the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale (for those above sixteen) is used to test the second or intellectual factor in learning.

Achievement tests yield part of the answer to the third factor in learning, proficiency in expression. Through oral reading, oral spelling, and fluency of speech, verbal strengths are ascertained, while visual-motor competence is further evaluated from the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt and the caliber of written work.

Once the (1) fluency level, (2) the instructional level, and (3) the frustration level are established, materials and methods can be selected to meet the immediate needs of the individual learner.

Roger Barker (3) reports as follows on an experimental approach initiated by Kurt Lewin and his student, Ferdinand Hoppe, in the

late 1920's. The study has far-reaching implications for therapeutic tutoring.

Hoppe found that the learner usually raises his level of aspiration to a newer and higher goal after a successful experience; while, after failure, he usually changes his level of aspiration to a new and lower goal if the first one is not achieved. In other words, left on his own, the learner shifts the level of his aspiration to protect himself against a continual sense of failure on the one hand, or, on the other hand, against too easy success through lack of sufficient incentive to achieve. However, social pressure from family, teacher, or peers can throw this self-protective mechanism out of balance. The resulting emotional frustration and tension may have disastrous consequences. Lack of ambition, lowered morale, and boredom may result if too little is expected of the learner, while evasion and giving up in despair may result from expecting more than can be done.

Methods. To begin tutoring at the wrong level, or at the wrong speed, not only impedes the therapeutic process, but invites defeat. No matter how rudimentary the *level of fluency* is, success must be experienced on a firmly established base.

In language arts this may mean starting with fundamental alphabet, letters and sounds, picture cards of core vocabulary, with tactile experiences of raised or depressed letters, postponing the use of books until the learner is assured of the ability to succeed. In arithmetic, con-

crete learning must precede abstract concepts.

Further stimulation takes place at the *instructional level*. Materials of sufficient difficulty and interest are presented to challenge the learner, thereby promoting the "let me try" attitude instead of the "I can't," which comes from fear of failure.

Dr. Montessori's Handbook reveals a world of practical, usable materials and procedures for therapeutic tutoring. Initially developed for abnormal children, these materials proved to be invaluable in promoting sensory acuity and expressive experiences, for they follow the child's natural physiological and psychological development. Developmental and biological age far outweigh chronological age as determinants of learning capacity.

Factors of developmental age, temperament and personality are noted as tutoring proceeds. Careful records of tests, training, and retests are made. After each unit of study, consisting of from twelve to twenty hours of work, depending on the age and needs of the learner and the discretion of the tutor, evaluation of the efficacy of the method and materials is made. Further steps are then outlined. Flexibility of program is essential, and choice of method and material depends on the learner's stage of growth, quality of his work, and the degree of difficulty he can comfortably handle.

The Tutor

The tutor for such a program needs to be carefully selected in the

light of the child's needs. Before the tutor's initial interview with the child a review is made of the psychologist's findings.

Good tutors do not just happen. They must be sought and found anywhere, anyhow. Miss X, a young woman formerly a teacher, was inclined in the classroom to be too strict and too demanding, but her handling of children individually under the psychologist's guidance met with real success. Her persistence came to the fore as an asset. She learned she could afford to be more flexible when not under classroom pressure, and her contacts with parents were excellent.

On the other hand, Mrs. O was older. With a splendid knowledge of basic mathematics and a never-failing originality in presentation, she challenged her students with a fresh point of view. She drew on the whole field of tactile, kinesthetic, visual, and auditory experiences. With her it was not unusual to hear a child who had reluctantly come in for tutoring say after a while: "May I stay a little longer?" or, "I understand now what I'm doing."

Requisites for the essential task of therapeutic tutoring are first and foremost: (1) enjoyment of children—feelings are infectious, and no one is more in need of reassurance than the child in trouble; (2) knowledge of how children develop physically, intellectually and emotionally—their levels of strengths and their weaknesses must be recognized and understood; (3) skill in acquiring and using many techniques, including

games, drills, or other devices, fitted to the particular need of the individual child; (4) flexibility is a must; while (5) patience is a *sine qua non*.

No tutor can handle all types of children, nor all methods with equal enthusiasm. Temperament, training, likes and dislikes, associations, carry-overs from previous experiences, and preferences for various age levels all affect a tutor's self-confidence and the resulting rapport she is able to establish. Many children, disheartened, discouraged, despairing individuals, come after years of whatever help the school or neighborhood has afforded, by now strongly convinced that they are either "dumb" or that they "never can learn." More of this same type of treatment will not answer. A new approach, different methods, are needed, "tailored to the individual needs, to meet the requirements of intellectual and emotional idiosyncrasies (1, page 34).

The label of the technique which the tutor uses makes very little difference. Any-port-in-a-storm might well express the trial and error methods of therapeutic tutoring. What does make the difference is the insight, knowledge, and empathy of the tutor. She must be more than adequate to meet requirements revealed in each situation, fitting the kind of teaching that makes achievement for the learner not only a probability but an obtainable goal, and a satisfying experience.

Case Reports

Jack's mother was a nervous

wreck; so was Jack, age eight years — how often anxiety is infectious! Jack's home was a very insecure place for him emotionally, and school had proved to be an equally threatening experience. Boundaries of a child's world are determined by law; he must either be under home or school supervision every hour of the twenty-four. School or home, home or school, it must be. In Jack's case, neither afforded solace or support. His resulting behavior, not to be wondered at, was self-defense against man, beast, and inanimate objects. His self-concept, reinforced by adults, was one of a bad boy. If "bad" was what was expected of him, he would more than try to achieve distinction by exceptional conduct in this line. This he did; he teased, annoyed, rebelled, rebuffed, daydreamed—in fact, there were few of the negative traits that he did not try in his efforts to be a "noticed somebody." Needless to say, academic work or the lack of it was an outstanding feature of this picture. But Jack had a hobby, snakes, probably because they proved an almost certain means of striking horror in most of his companions. This hobby the tutor used as the interest about which he might dictate stories. Copied and typed out, these were ready for Jack's next lesson. Enthusiastically he set out to read the product of his own creation. The incentive of finding a *legitimate* way to express himself finally won out. Jack began to learn the basic skills of language. This accomplishment and the accompanying approval and

acceptance have produced in Jack a sense of pride and respect for himself. Result, a changed self-concept attained by means of an adapted Fernald method in the hands of an expert tutor working in cooperation with the psychologist.

Quite a different story can be told of Oswald; now twelve, he was seven when he first came to us. He had decided to "pull the shade down," and no amount of encouragement nor attempted group participation seemed to change his concept of himself as a non-learner. He bragged that nobody was going to teach him, and his life seemed to be spent in proving the accuracy of his statement. After tests had assured us of a more than normal mental equipment, daily therapy was attempted. Here, in a relationship where he felt secure and accepted, Oswald learned to express much of his repressed feeling of hostility and fear. Through a modified Gillingham method of phonetic teaching, his resistance to reading was broken down. He gained a sufficient picture word vocabulary to establish associative visual memories of words. When Oswald decided on his own that he liked to learn, success with arithmetic followed. From then on, step by step, the road was comparatively easy. Nowhere is the old adage more true, "Nothing succeeds like success." There were still disheartening days with very little accomplished, but five years ago there would have been scant evidence on which to base a prognosis of "honor student," which Oswald has now proven himself to

be in an accredited school. He came with pride to report this to us.

Mary, ten years old, was in the fourth grade, a reading failure. The stimulation of a large public school had proved too much for her. Intelligence tests showed above average ability. Her physical record of illness and convalescence and her slow rate of growth were recognized as possible causative factors of failure. Her physician was consulted for advice on the amount of physical strain she could safely handle. A tentative program recommended from these findings was discussed with her parents. Her tutor understood and accepted the necessity of guarding the child against too much pressure, against her own self-concept of inadequacy. Mary wanted to learn and responded well to the individual attention given to her. Growing confidence in her academic learning improved her self-estimate socially. Now, after two years, she is an accepted, adequate student, happily adjusted in a normal grade, not just hanging on, but well above the average of her class. We insist on more than average performance from a child before return to the class situation in order to assure academic adequacy necessary for full acceptance by classmates.

Therapeutic tutoring cannot be a hit-or-miss affair. It involves teacher, school nurse, administrator, family and relatives closely associated with the learner. There must be acceptance of the purpose and goals of such a program. There must be recognition of the need to consistently encourage the individual both in un-

inspiring drill and in the perfecting of the easily accomplished assignment. The well-meaning adult without understanding can undermine attitudes which the tutor has painstakingly established.

We do not believe that there is "a particular set of factors" which makes a good tutoring situation. One situation may require quick decisions, another patient drill and perseverance, while in another, building strength in verbal alacrity or vivid imagination may be needed. "Children need wise, stable, comforting advice which they can trust" when they are in trouble. The true therapeutic tutor is one who, as an understanding friend, chooses to help each unique personality develop better attitudes toward himself, toward learning, and toward authority. The tutor challenges the individual by means of incentives and reachable goals to work toward successful achievement.

Planning, revising, testing, restraining—the need is ever present to pool resources and to recognize the many facets of the mind and of the emotions involved in the learning and growing up process. Teamwork cannot be over-emphasized. When tutor, parent, and psychologist have as their goal "a happy and successful learner," we venture to predict that often that goal can be reached.

Acknowledgement to Dr. Arthur.

I wish to acknowledge my gratitude to Grace Arthur for her *Tutoring As Therapy*, published in 1946, which inspired this paper, and the development service which I direct.

The intellectually adequate learner who is not achieving academically in the normal classroom still presents a challenge to the educator to review and revise techniques and materials of teaching. Such an individual can and does achieve when understanding persons seek avenues of approach to learning geared to individual idiosyncrasies.

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The Roseville Experiment with Individualized Reading

by HARRY W. SARTAIN

• ROSEVILLE, MINNESOTA, PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE PURPOSE of the experiment was to determine whether second-grade groups would make greater progress in reading skills when taught for three months by the method of individualized self-selection or when taught for an equivalent period by the method of ability grouping using basic readers plus a variety of supplementary books.

The experimental samples were ten classes of second-grade children attending six public schools in Roseville, Minnesota, a St. Paul suburb. In the fall of 1958 there were 660 second-grade pupils enrolled, and the median I.Q. on the Lorge-Thorndike Test administered seven months earlier was 114. The ten classes were randomly chosen from among those of teachers who expressed an interest in the study.* Except for one beginner all of the teachers had had experience with group instruction and with a supplementary reading program utilizing the self-selection techniques. They prepared for the experiment by studying carefully the best references on the individualized method.

Procedure

The first week of the 1958-59

*The cooperating teachers were Mrs. Elizabeth Corson, Mrs. Josephine Edie, Miss Nannette Flom, Mrs. Harriet Ferris, Mrs. Karen Greenwaldt, Miss Myrtle Legaarden, Miss Marjorie Lindell, Miss Joan Schierts, Mrs. Carol Thompson, and Mrs. Carol Turner.

school term was a "warm-up" period in which the children read various stories in several readers to become refreshed in their reading skills. The teachers studied the children and tentatively grouped them for purposes of testing and later experimental work.

At the beginning of the second week of school the children who were classified as the "slower" group in each class were given Form 2 of the Gates Primary Tests of Word Recognition and Paragraph Reading. The average and faster students were tested with Form 2 of the Gates Advanced Primary Tests. All of the pupils were examined with the Word Elements section and the Letter Sounds section of the Developmental Reading Tests by Bond and others.

Five of the ten classes were randomly chosen to participate in the individualized self-selection program for the first three months of the study, while the other five classes were taught in three or four ability groups per room, using basic readers and supplementary books. This instruction began on September 9 and continued for fifty-six school days until December 1. The teachers scheduled approximately two hours and twenty minutes daily for reading work, with the time divided between morning and afternoon periods.

On December 3 a new period of teaching was begun. The classes that

had used the individualized method first were now taught with basic readers in ability groups. Those that had been working in ability groups switched to the individualized plan. Instruction was continued for another fifty-six school days, through March 9, 1959. On December 2 and again on March 10 different forms of the Gates tests and the same forms of the Word Elements and the Letter Sounds tests were administered. Complete data were obtained for 171 pupils in the average and better groups and for 63 pupils in the lower groups.

The Individualized Program

More than one hundred different books were available in each of the classrooms at all times. Copies of the basic textbooks for all common reading series were provided, and every room had a library corner stocked with a wide variety of literary materials ranging in difficulty from pre-primer to fifth-grade level. Also the county bookmobile brought a box of thirty-five different books to each room every month.

Each child was aided in selecting the books which were most interesting and suitable for him, and he read at his own rate. Skills and oral reading were taught during conferences between the teacher and individual children, with conferences scheduled for approximately ten minutes twice a week. Small groups were occasionally called together to learn a skill needed by all.

Frequent sharing experiences included oral reading, telling about

fascinating incidents, dramatizing, illustrating stories, "auctioning" books by exciting hints, writing descriptions of characters, showing action on a flannel board, making puppets, exhibiting objects described, making taped summaries, demonstrating experiments of story characters, nominating a "book of the week," explaining foreign words encountered, and innumerable other activities. All pupils kept detailed records of books read by using individual booklets, illustrated folders, etc. Teachers made adaptations in the individualized approach as required.

Enriched Basic Reading

During the alternate three-month periods the teachers divided every class into three or more ability groups. Each group read in a different basic textbook of suitable difficulty. The teachers' manuals were consulted daily for a thorough, sequential program of skills. Basic workbooks and various worksheets were utilized in all groups to reinforce skills lessons.

In addition, a vigorous program of extension reading was undertaken. All of the books mentioned previously were grouped attractively on shelves, and after finishing their reading seat-work, the children were encouraged to read extensively in books of their own choosing. Occasional brief sharing periods were scheduled; pupils shared books in many of the same ways that were described in connection with the individualized method.

The Teachers' Observations

Before the data were summarized, the teachers listed the observations upon which they were agreed.

Strengths of the method of individualized self-selection. (1) Individual conferences provide a valuable personal relationship with pupils. (2) Children are motivated to read more extensively. (3) There is a keen interest in sharing. (4) There is strong motivation for individual improvement. (5) Top readers are especially responsive.

Weaknesses of the individualized method. (1) All slow pupils and others who cannot work well independently become restless and tend to waste time. (2) There is no opportunity to teach new vocabulary and concepts needed before reading. (3) It is impossible to provide a systematic program of word attack skills. (4) It is exceedingly hard to identify pupils' difficulties in short infrequent conferences. (5) There is some doubt about the permanence of skills taught so briefly. (6) The method is inefficient because of the

time required to teach skills to individuals instead of teaching groups who are progressing at a similar rate. (7) The conscientious teacher becomes frustrated in attempting to provide individual conferences for all of the pupils who need them each day.

Analysis of the Data

The data for the upper and middle groups were studied by a three-way analysis of variance. Because this showed that the gains achieved by the top and middle groups were not significantly different, the findings for these two groups were combined. The data for the lower groups were studied by a two-way analysis of variance and the effect of interaction was isolated.

The first comparison, incidental to the main purpose, was concerned with the differences in gains during the first three-month period and the second three-month period regardless of method. The findings are listed in Table I. The data from the Letter Sounds test were omitted be-

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF GROUP MEANS AND GAINS DURING FIRST AND
SECOND THREE-MONTH PERIODS REGARDLESS OF METHOD

Test	Group	First Test Mean	Second Test Mean	Third Test Mean	Gain First 3 Mo.	Gain Second 3 Mo.	Difference
Gates Adv. Pr. Word Rec.	Upper & Mid.	2.81	3.27	3.74	.46	.47	.01
Gates Adv. Pr. Par. Read.	Upper & Mid.	2.63	3.63	4.25	1.00	.62	.38**
Gates Pr. Word Rec.	Low	1.75	2.53	2.69	.78	.16	.62**
Gates Pr. Par. Read.	Low	1.72	2.42	2.84	.70	.42	.28*
Visual Elements (Bond et al)	All Pupils	12.47	16.79	20.00	4.32	3.21	1.11**

*Significant at the .05 level.

**Significant at the .01 level.

cause there were too many perfect scores.

On all tests except Advanced Word Recognition the groups made significantly greater gains during the first three months regardless of which method was employed. This finding offers a note of warning concerning the planning of other experiments in which *all* of the pupils are taught by one method at the beginning of the year and *all* are simultaneously subjected to another procedure later.

The second comparison was made between gains when the two different methods of teaching were employed. These findings are listed in Table II.

In the first line one reads that the median gain of the more capable pupils in the ten classes under the individualized method was .46 of a year, with five classes following this method during the first three months and five using it for the second three months. The same groups made an identical gain during their three months of work under the basal reader group plan.

The differences obtained under the two methods at both levels on the Paragraph Reading tests and on the Visual Elements test were not significant. However, the lower groups of pupils made an average gain of .35 year on the Word Recognition test under the individualized approach and .60 in ability groups. Both gains are remarkable for "slow" students, but it should be remembered that the average I.Q. for this grade was approximately 114 and mentally retarded pupils are not in the regular classes. Apparently the children made .25 of a year greater gain through basal reader instruction in ability groups than by the individualized method. This difference is significant at the .05 level ($F=6.56$; with one degree of freedom $P < .05$). It could have occurred by chance only five times in one hundred.

A subjective study of the scores provides support for the belief that the individualized method is less profitable for teachers who have the least professional preparation and experience.

TABLE II
GROUP MEANS AND GAINS WHEN COMPARING METHODS

Test	Group	Individualized Method			Basal Group Method			Diff. Between Methods
		Pretest	Final Test	Gain	Pretest	Final Test	Gain	
Gates Adv. Pr. Word Rec.	Upper & Mid.	3.01	3.47	.46	3.08	3.54	.46	.00
Gates Adv. Pr. Par. Read.	Upper & Mid.	3.11	3.90	.79	3.15	3.98	.83	.04
Gates Pr. Word Rec.	Low	2.24	2.59	.35	2.04	2.64	.60	.25*
Gates Pr. Par. Read.	Low	2.14	2.62	.48	2.00	2.64	.64	.16
Visual Elements (Bond et al)	All Pupils	14.66	18.20	3.54	14.60	18.62	4.02	.48

*Significant at the .05 level.

Conclusions

Combining the teachers' reactions with the statistical information, it was possible to reach several conclusions concerning the employment of the two methods in the second grades of *this* school district.

1. Obviously, second-grade children made greater progress during the first three months of the school year than during the second three months regardless of the method used.

2. Capable students made approximately the same gains in reading under both methods. Because of efficiency and the provision for readiness experiences and systematic skills instruction, the basic and supplementary reader method should be used as the backbone of the program for these pupils.

3. Because the slower pupils tended to make better gains in vocabulary when following the basic reader method, this method should be utilized for teaching them, also.

4. The individual conference procedure should be incorporated into the system of sharing and record-

ing supplementary reading in each class because it provides strong motivation.

5. When capable children in a classroom have carefully completed the work for their grade in a basic reading series, they would profit from individualized reading for the remainder of the year.

6. Pupils in top reading groups may be able to master a thorough basic reading program if it is taught only during the morning reading periods each day with supplementary reading individualized in the afternoon.

In summary, because this study and others that have been carefully controlled show that the individualized method does not produce better reading gains than a strong basal program,* there is no reason to forfeit the advantages of a well-planned basic system. Instead the benefits of the individual conferences should be obtained by their addition to the basic reader plan.

*See "A Bibliography on Individualized Reading," by Harry W. Sartain, in this issue of *THE READING TEACHER*.

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A High School Faculty Considers Reading

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READING in the secondary school is still unexplored territory. Guideposts of research are almost non-existent and the secondary-school faculty that breaks ground in the field of reading is indeed pioneering. With little more than expert opinion and common sense to guide them, high school administrators and teachers are creating their own patterns of action research.

In an age of pioneering, caution may be a questionable virtue. When answers are still to be found, it may be better to plunge in than to stand on the bank and count the whirlpools. Progress in secondary reading depends on the enterprising teacher who dares to try. But careless experimentation, action research which is badly designed and evaluated, and experimental results viewed out of perspective are deterrents to progress. Before plunging into a reading program the high school faculty should give careful consideration to questions that penetrate the philosophic structure on which a sound program can be erected.

The caution to go slow comes from consultants and teachers in schools where reading programs have been started. The immediate need to help poor readers sometimes precipitates a "program" which is no more than a special reading class, sometimes corrective or remedial, sometimes labeled developmental,

tacked on to the rest of the curriculum and ignored by everyone but the struggling teacher. Since the goal is an "all-school developmental program," to which every teacher must contribute, questions that affect the total curriculum are involved. "Readiness," a well-worn term in primary reading methods, is appropriately applied to the period in which teachers in a secondary school get ready to teach reading. Some of the questions to be raised during such a readiness period will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

What Is Reading?

On the surface this question appears to belabor the obvious. Yet differences of opinion persist. A recent attack on the teaching of reading in American schools was based wholly on the misconception that reading is the ability to pronounce words from the stimulus of the printed symbol. Some high school teachers share this notion. It leads them to the fallacy that reading instruction can be left behind the grade school door. Probing into definitions of reading is a beneficial exercise for secondary teachers. Out of it will come such questions as: What is meaning? Is comprehension ever perfect? Are there levels of comprehension, and if so, what determines "level"? Do various types of comprehension exist at each level?

What kind of intellectual equipment is necessary for various levels of comprehension?

Curriculum committees often begin with listing skills to be published in a reading guide. Such lists are easily gleaned from professional books or the "index of skills" on the inside cover of a reading workbook. In a reading guide listed skills are worth less than nothing unless they are derived from a genuine understanding of what reading is. Probably the surest way for teachers to learn about reading is to take a course in improving their own reading. Since we are inclined to teach as we are taught, a course in adult reading has the added advantage of providing ideas of methodology. Such courses can be taught by consultants from the school system or from neighboring universities.

Where consultant services are not available, a high school faculty can study the various definitions of reading provided in the professional literature. But it is not always necessary to call upon the opinions of experts. Reading has been with us for a long time; every member of a high school faculty knows something about the act, or the art, of reading. By analyzing their own techniques and habits, and comparing notes with others, teachers can get below the surface in their understanding of reading as a mental process. True understanding of the nature of reading is needed for teaching reading. This does not mean that every high school teacher must delve into the psychology of reading. It does mean that teachers

must avoid verbalizing about skills and abilities in reading if they are to think through techniques for teaching them.

Do We Need to Teach Reading?

Presumably, a faculty engaged in considering the why's and wherefore's of reading instruction has already answered this question in the affirmative. But what does assent mean? At one stage in the development of high school reading teachers an affirmative answer means: "My students can't read their assignments. If the elementary school doesn't teach them to read properly, I guess we have to." And the speaker usually adds, "If I knew how—or had the time." The implication is that a special reading course taught by someone else, the English teacher probably, will enable high school students to read successfully the subject-matter assignments that now defeat them. At another stage of readiness, the teacher is willing to teach reading skills and knows how to do so. But his objective is still to tailor the pupil to fit the assignment. This attitude reveals a very limited understanding of what reading is or who our pupils are. The objective is applicable only to that part of the high school population who are able to achieve traditional academic standards.

Do we need to teach reading in secondary schools to *all* students? The Sunday School answer has derived from an imperfect understanding of what reading instruction is, and a superficial regard for pupil

needs. Before the pat answer is given we should ask whether *all* students in today's heterogeneous high school population learn best by reading. To be sure, the present high school offerings, even for slow learners, put a heavy premium on reading skills. But realistic courses of study for pupils in the lower range of mental ability should emphasize the oral aspects of communication. Listening skills may need more attention than reading skills. The answer to the question is neither *yes* nor *no*, but a matter of degree: how much and for whom. Teachers must examine *what* they teach and *why* before they are ready to consider *how*. Instruction in reading skills is part of the *how*. Fitting a reading program to an outmoded curriculum is as incongruous as adding power steering to a Model T.

Who Are Our Students?

The preceding paragraphs have raised the question of *how much* and *for whom*. In more elegant and pedagogical language, this is the problem of individual differences, and no faculty can consider teaching reading without running headlong into this most difficult of questions. Few high school teachers need to be told that their classes are becoming increasingly heterogeneous. Nearly 80 per cent of all high-school age children are included in our present secondary school population as contrasted with 32 per cent in 1920. Even if statistics were not available, teachers have experienced the effect upon academic "standards" that

such a change in population has created.

In a well-planned reading program teachers should study the problem from many angles. Their first impulse after looking at reading scores and I.Q.'s is to demand some type of administrative grouping that will limit the range. They will say, with some justification, that if group instruction within the classroom is one of the ways to meet individual needs, then grouping youngsters with like needs in more nearly "homogeneous" classes is also a step along the way. Some forms of administrative grouping may indeed be advisable, but before the faculty decides on this step, they should do more thinking. How are students different? If a group could be found that scored all at the same grade level on a standardized reading test, they would still be different in mental emotional, and social maturity, in interests, experiences, home background, in educational and vocational objectives. And their skills in reading, in spite of similar grade scores on tests of reading ability, would still be amazingly diverse. Teachers who understand the nature of reading can realize how this can be so. Still, they must see the truth of the statement demonstrated in their own pupils. The first year of teacher readiness might well be spent in intensive analysis of pupil needs through informal tests, standardized tests, interest inventories, observations, study of cumulative records, and parent and pupil interviews.

Becoming thoroughly acquainted

with the needs and abilities of one hundred and fifty students is impossible, say some high school teachers. It need not be, however, if committees of teachers work together to plan the analysis of pupils they have in common. But the act of getting to know students should have the beneficial effect of causing teachers to raise important questions about grouping. Now, with a better understanding of "individual differences," they may ask: How can better administrative planning reduce the number of individuals each teacher must know? Is administrative grouping feasible in this school? If it is, will it be of any real value to the *student*? Teachers will realize that such grouping will have little effect on the problems of meeting individual differences.

Thorough knowledge of pupil needs forces the conscientious teacher to abandon single textbook assignments and to reduce the frequency with which he teaches by whole-class methods. In a year of experimentation during the readiness period, teachers should observe group methods in elementary classrooms and in demonstration lessons, should build materials, and should themselves try very brief excursions out of the whole-class methods.

Probably no question bearing upon teaching reading is so crucial as the one we have just discussed. Understanding that pupils are different can be verbalized by the graduates of teacher-training institutions; it can be forced by sad experience upon incredulous liberal arts grad-

uates; it can be fought by the die-hard traditionalists. But translating the understanding into action means the difference between success and failure in today's high school.

Are We Teaching Reading Now?

The high school faculty considering a reading program begins by assessing present practices. We cannot talk about adding reading to the high school curriculum as if it were a body of knowledge like theories of nuclear fission or even a course in child care. Reading is as old as written language. It has always been in the high school curriculum. Hence the platitude: "Good teachers have always taught reading." But the grain of truth in that statement is swallowed with smug satisfaction. "Yes, of course. I'm a good teacher. I teach reading. I teach the vocabulary of my subject." All teachers require students to use reading skills. Few teachers in the content fields teach students *how* to use them.

It is difficult for secondary teachers to grasp the difference between using reading and teaching reading. Help could be provided by demonstration lessons of direct teaching of skills as part of the teacher-readiness program. Providing situations where skills are used is essential, of course; direct teaching of skills is also necessary.

Who Should Teach Reading in the High School?

At the present time, at least, it is unrealistic to propose that all teach-

ers, from the music instructor to the football coach, teach reading. On the other hand, it is equally unrealistic to leave instruction solely in the hands of the reading teacher or the English department.

In schools where developmental programs are under way, trained reading teachers serve as consultants whose major responsibility is to help other teachers teach reading. Since demonstration classes are vital in the teacher-readiness program, special reading classes for retarded, and sometimes for superior readers, are formed. But such classes do not consume all the consultant's time. He is free to work with teachers in their own classrooms, helping them to select and develop materials and to build classroom libraries. He shows them how to interpret standardized reading tests and how to build informal tests using the materials of their courses. He demonstrates grouping techniques within the regular classroom and observes teachers as they follow his lead.

In schools that cannot afford additional staff, the reading program is administered through the English department. But wherever a strong developmental program is the goal, administrators provide enthusiastic leadership and support, involving all the subject-matter teachers. Where such direction is lacking, special reading classes, substitute English classes, clinics and workshops will continue to be appendages to the total curriculum, and content teachers will still continue to let George do it.

What Is a Reading Program?

Program is another pedagogical term that has become a catch-all. It has a formality that is frightening. Many schools in which individual teachers are doing excellent jobs of teaching reading claim to have no program. In other schools the label "developmental reading program" is attached to a situation where one over-worked teacher meets twelve seventh-grade classes three times a week and passes out workbooks. If "program" suggests a planned extra, the ideal would be no program at all.

Emphasis on *program* can itself be a deterrent to teaching reading in the high school. The end product—reading instruction for all students as part of their subject-matter courses—grows by small contributions of individual faculty members. The history teacher who develops a series of lessons for distinguishing between fact and opinion should try out the lessons tomorrow. He cannot wait for a "program." It is the multiplication of many daily lessons and short-term units from many teachers over many years that gradually develops into a "program."

Nevertheless, a high school faculty in its initial stages of investigating what to do about the improvement of reading must have a plan toward which efforts can be focused. Emergency measures may have to be taken, but they will not become permanent if goals are insistently kept in view. Plans will vary according to the size of the school, the type of community, the abilities of the pupils

and their needs now and in the future, the curricula offered, the attitudes and skills of the teachers, the size of the staff, the budget, and the consultant help available.

The questions raised in this article search for the roots of problems that have impeded the development of reading instruction in the secondary school. A review of the questions will reveal that all of them are concerned with the meanings of words freely used by teachers, administrators, and reading experts. Glib use of these terms tends to obscure their real meaning and to make problems of improving reading appear capable of easy solution. The questions raised in this article ask for more real understanding of: (1) what reading is, (2) what reading means in the lives of *all* students, including slow learners, (3) the meaning of individual differences, (4) what it means to teach reading, (5) who is responsible for reading improvement, (6) what a program is.

A high school faculty that considers reading should pry into the meanings of pedagogical terms that bemuse as often as they enlighten. Until research lends support to opinions, high school faculties have a right to weigh advice warily. Articles, including this one, should be read critically. Theories should be tested in practice, and the real prov-

ing ground is the classroom.

Idealists, crusaders, pioneers, frontier thinkers—call them what you will—often have their heads in the clouds, as they should. "The trouble with you, Mr. Emerson," said Carlyle to our eminent idealist, "is that not only is your head in the clouds, but your feet are, too." High school faculties with their feet firmly on the ground will make sure progress toward goals that are today still in the realm of the ideal.

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Who Are Treating Our Disabled Readers?

by ROBERT KARLIN

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WHEN OUR children run high fevers we make a hurried call to the family physician. When they complain of a severe toothache an emergency visit to the dentist is arranged. If we suspect that their vision is impaired, the ophthalmologist is consulted. In each instance, we turn to an individual whom we know possesses the qualifications of a trained practitioner. We have the assurance that these men and women have met the minimum requirements for pursuing their profession since each has been *licensed* to practice.

Some of our children are failing to learn to read in school. It has been estimated that from 10 to 25 per cent of the school populations are operating at reading achievement levels below their ability levels. Although the schools recognize this problem, insufficient funds and lack of trained personnel frequently interfere with the establishment of sound remedial reading programs. Therefore many parents are seeking outside assistance from "clinics" and "centers" and remedial reading "specialists." Do they have any assurance that the reading "clinic" or "specialist" is adequately prepared to treat their children? Are they able with confidence to assume that each who offers his services possesses minimum qualifications of training and experience? Unfortunately, the answer to

each of these questions must be "no."

Anyone may organize a reading "center" or engage in private remedial reading tutoring. Since many parents are seeking aid to help overcome their children's reading weaknesses, the conduct of such a service can be very profitable. All that is required to initiate this venture is the desire to engage in it. Solicitation of clients through handbills and newspaper advertisements will bring a ready response from eager parents.

Of course, most business ventures may be launched without regard for licensing requirements. This freedom of action is in harmony with our system of economic enterprise. None but a few will argue for strict regulation of all business. However, where the public interest is best served by some degree of surveillance, the people have decreed it through appropriate legislation. In this way the practice of medicine, dentistry, law, and other professions is policed. This regulation of private endeavor has been extended to include the plumber, the electrician, the barber. In matters of health and safety the protection of the individual is judged to have primacy over other considerations.

But can we say that parents of children who require expert treatment for severe reading problems can confidently seek help, knowing that each who offers his services has

appropriate qualifications? Parents have nothing but the claims of individuals who purport to be ready to serve these troubled children.

Many practitioners are unusually qualified to work with the retarded reader; others are ill-prepared to do so. Too much is at stake to permit the unqualified to practice alongside the qualified. We would not allow the untrained student to prescribe treatment for a child's bodily ills. We need to have the same concern for the child's achievement ills. An examination of the multi-faceted aspects of reading retardation will reveal the extent to which real competency is necessary if children are to be served.

Causes of Reading Failures

Research findings demonstrate that reading failures cannot be explained by a single factor; we need to think in terms of multiple causation. This situation is further complicated by the fact that two or more conditions may be present in the child, either one of which might have produced the other. Or a problem not easily recognized might be responsible for the behavior which one can readily observe.

We may classify the factors which contribute to reading retardation under several broad headings: (1) physical, (2) intellectual, (3) emotional, (4) educational. Let us examine these briefly in order to understand what influence they can have upon reading failure.

Physical causes. Visual and auditory defects may contribute to read-

ing failure (4), (9), (16). Immaturity of vision, (especially in the younger child who is entering the primary grades), near-sightedness, and eye imbalances have been found to interfere with the reading process. Defects in hearing can be significantly related to failure where the learner cannot distinguish between sounds which the word represents. Inability to hear clearly may lead also to improper associations between the symbol and that which it is supposed to represent.

While no direct relationship may be said to exist between reading failure and general physical condition, there is some evidence to support the view that poor health can and does interfere with learning (5), (18). Since learning to read is really a very difficult undertaking, any condition which adds to the difficulty requires careful scrutiny. Children who suffer from malnutrition or endocrine dysfunction or other serious disturbances of the body have additional burdens with which to cope, and are not free to concentrate upon the learning situation at hand. These are some of the children who give every indication of restlessness and inattention in the classroom and who find it almost impossible to attend to their daily tasks.

It has been demonstrated that physical growth and reading growth tend to go together (10), (12). The physically immature child is not as likely to achieve as the more mature child. This may account in part for the preponderance of male reading failures. Girls in the first and second

grades (the crucial ones for so many) surpass the boys in bodily development and may be more ready to profit from reading instruction.

Children who have suffered brain damage at birth or in subsequent accidents frequently manifest an inability to readily perceive word symbols. The letters of words tend to become fused and blend into the background, with the result that difficulty in distinguishing one word from another interferes with reading progress. Some success in learning to read has been realized with these children by highly-skilled teachers.

Some investigators claim a connection between confused or mixed dominance and reading failure (1), (8). The child who prefers the left or right hand and the opposite foot, or favors the eye which is on the side opposite to the preferred hand or foot, may suffer interference as he tries to perceive word symbols. Some theorists have explained such confusion in neurological terms, and it may be possible that some learners are so influenced (13).

Intellectual causes. While the possession of a particular minimum mental age is not a guarantee of reading success, there is sufficient evidence to support the conclusion that a significant relationship exists between intelligence as measured by available instruments and growth in reading (3), (7). We may expect the children who possess the general ability to profit from school work to be the achievers in reading. The more gifted child ordinarily will out-distance the less-endowed one. Fre-

quently, the latter is reading as well as he can, but since he has not reached the achievement levels of his age-peers, he will be pushed beyond his present capacities. These ill-advised efforts by the untrained can lead to serious dislocations and frustrations in these children. On the other hand, the slower-developing child has often not reached his maximum reading level, and suitable instruction can lead to real growth with accompanying satisfactions.

It should be noted that a large percentage of retarded readers are of normal or superior intelligence. They simply are not keeping pace with their intellectual development. Causes of reading failure must be sought elsewhere.

Emotional causes. Perhaps as much has been written about emotional problems and reading failure as about any other type of maladjustment. Inferences about the role of personality disturbances in learning to read have been drawn. From the evidence which is available, it is safe to conclude that some children have failed to learn to read because of interference resulting from emotional upset (6), (14), (15). It has been suggested from clinical studies that dislike for reading can stem from feelings of hostility toward parents and teachers and from feelings of dependency. Where children are disturbed by these fears and anxieties, placement in a therapeutic climate may relieve the pressures and free the children for learning.

There is further evidence to support the view that emotional dis-

turbances are *caused* by reading failure (17). It would be unreasonable to assume that failure of any kind does not affect the way in which the child regards himself. Clinical tests have shown improvement in attitudes and behavior even though no special attention was focused upon these aspects of personality growth.

Since the pre-school history of most children is not known, it is difficult to determine whether the children brought their problems with them or developed some after experiencing school failures. Cause may be confused with effect. Too frequently the terms "emotional block" or "reading block" are indiscriminately ascribed to children who are failing to achieve.

Educational influences. Many reading difficulties have their beginnings in the primary grades. Parent after parent with whom this writer has discussed children's reading problems has declared that the difficulties appeared in the first and second years of school and continued to persist through the grades.

There is an ever-growing awareness that many elementary school teachers have had little or no training for teaching reading. This lack of preparation manifests itself in several ways: failure to assess readiness for undertaking formal reading instruction, the use of inappropriate reading materials, teaching based upon unsound principles. These weaknesses have left their marks upon an unknown number of children.

Attendance records show that young children are absent from school more frequently than older

ones. If no provision to enable them to learn what has been missed is made, some will falter. Such weakness in classroom organization is intimately related to an inability to provide for individual differences in reading achievement.

Some school districts have failed to provide adequate space and staff, and have permitted classes to become unreasonably large. No one knows the optimum class size for teaching reading, but teachers of large classes report that they are unable to spend very much time helping individual children overcome specific reading weaknesses. Thus, some fall victim to inadequacies for which the entire community is responsible.

Need for Supervision

It has been demonstrated that the study of reading problems is a complex business, and that specific skills and understandings are required if children are to be helped. A shotgun approach to these problems is not adequate. The diagnostician must endeavor to ascertain what factors have helped bring about these reading failures, pinpoint the specific reading weaknesses, and plan a course of action. Either he or other practitioners must be ready to carry out a program of treatment that is directed to the resolution of *specific* problems.

All children cannot be handled in the same way. One may require therapy before he is ready to profit from any instruction. Another may be suffering from physical defects

which will continue to interfere with learning unless they are removed. A program of immediate remediation may be recommended for a third. And still another might benefit from a combination of efforts.

Obviously, everyone is not able to make these judgments, let alone carry them out. We cannot even expect the classroom teacher to do this. Six states have recognized a need for setting up some minimum requirements for the teaching certificate in reading. A course or two in reading is not enough. Only after one has acquired a thorough understanding of psychology — child and adolescent growth, personality development and mental hygiene, learning, and measurement and evaluation — and the methods of detecting, analyzing, and correcting reading faults and has enjoyed carefully supervised practice will he be in a position to undertake some responsibility for the disabled reader.

The issuance of licenses by the state to those who have demonstrated that they are competent to work with retarded readers would be in the best interests of children. At least all would know that the possessor of the certificate had met minimum requirements for practicing his calling. Certification has led to upgrading in other fields; it should do no less for the field of remedial reading.

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A Concurrent Validity Study of the Silent Reading Tests and the Gates Reading Diagnostic Tests

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A DIAGNOSTIC reading test is generally considered an indispensable tool in diagnosing reading difficulties. Several such tests have been devised, the most exhaustive being the Gates Reading Diagnostic Tests (GRDT), individually administered. Recently Bond, Clymer, and Hoyt have published the Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests (SRDT), designed to be used as a group test, in the diagnosis of reading difficulties. This test analyzes practically the same aspects of reading as does the Gates test.

It is rather surprising that in spite of extensive use of the GRDT test, no comprehensive validity research is available beyond that published by the test's author (2). It was the purpose of this study, therefore, to analyze the concurrent validity of the GRDT and the SRDT, to determine if the subtests of these instruments which purport to measure the same skills yield equivalent distributions. By concurrent validity is meant the comparability of the two tests when administered to the same population, without necessarily determining which measure is more valid.

Procedure

The subjects of this study consisted of two third graders, seven fourth graders, and eleven fifth grad-

ers, altogether twenty children. The children selected had at least average intelligence (above 90 IQ), and they had scored two or more years below grade-level expectancies on the Stanford Reading Test. These children were given the SRDT and the GRDT.

The two tests were compared by pairing the scores on the subtests which purported to measure identical skills. Ten such subtests were found; they are listed in Table I. The scores on both sets of subtests were reported in grade norms. Three of the subtests of the GRDT, the ones measuring initial, middle, and ending errors were given only ratings in the test manual, but by interpolating and extrapolating with the aid of the manual for the GRDT (3), grade scores for these three subtests were assigned. A median reading score was also computed for each child on each of the two tests, making a total of eleven comparisons.

Means and standard deviations were computed for each of the two sets of eleven distributions. The differences between paired means were tested by the *t*-test of significance of difference between correlated means, using the direct-difference method. The significance of the differences between eleven pairs of standard deviations were tested by the *F*-test.

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SRDT AND THE GRDT
AND TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE

Subtest	SRDT Mean	S. D.	GRDT Mean	S. D.	t	F
1. Words in isolation						
Word perception	3.07	.55	2.92	.36	1.73	2.33*
2. Orientation						
Reversals	3.39	.63	2.91	.26	3.07**	5.86**
3. Initial errors	3.58	.76	2.66	.53	3.81**	4.46**
4. Middle errors	3.10	1.07	2.81	.45	.873	5.65**
5. Ending errors	3.67	.87	3.68	.64	1.03	1.85
6. Word elements						
Syllables, phonograms	3.29	.86	2.83	.32	2.62*	7.22**
7. Letter sounds	4.22	1.05	2.85	.26	5.24**	16.31**
8. Beginning sounds						
Auditory initial sounds	2.97	1.03	2.71	.19	1.10	29.39**
9. Rhyming sounds						
Auditory final sounds	3.56	.36	2.46	.36	9.44**	1.00
10. Word synthesis						
Syllabication	3.32	.32	2.12	.59	12.90**	3.40**
11. Median scores	3.42	.44	2.85	.14	6.78**	9.88**

*Significant at 5 per cent level (Required $t = 2.093$, d.f. 19)
(Required $F = 2.17$, d.f. 19)

**Significant at 1 per cent level (Required $t = 2.861$, d.f. 19)
(Required $F = 3.30$, d.f. 19)

Findings

The table shows the means and standard deviations of the eleven pairs of distributions, as well as the t and F ratios. It is noted that the means and standard deviations for the subtests of the SRDT were consistently higher than those of the GRDT, indicating that not only do the scores on the SRDT tend to be higher, they also tend to be more variable. The difference between the total median scores was more than one-half year.

If scores on paired tests are considered equivalent only when there is no significant difference between their means and between their standard deviations, only one out of eleven pairs showed equivalence. Nine of the eleven pairs of distributions dif-

fered significantly at the 1 per cent level, and one pair of subtests, words in isolation, differed at the 5 per cent level. Only one pair of subtests, ending errors, yielded comparable distributions. The results of the ending - errors comparison should, however, be viewed in light of the limitation of extrapolation of scores from ratings, since this was one of the three tests on the GRDT where this procedure was necessary.

Conclusion

From the results of this study of twenty children with reading disabilities it was concluded that the assumption of concurrent validity between the SRDT and the GRDT must be rejected. Since no conclusive

(Continued on Page 296)

TV: Good Servant or Evil Genie?

by ARTHUR S. McDONALD
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TEACHING BY television is the fastest growing development in the history of American education. There was practically no use of television in the schools five years ago. Today more than five hundred school districts and a hundred and twenty colleges use it in some manner in their instructional programs. Commercial television has also markedly increased its impact on American living habits during this period. The IRA Television Research Committee* has investigated aspects of television related to reading and reading instruction; this report summarizes the most important findings of the committee studies.

Television when properly utilized was found to promote a significant change in children's reading interests. It also encouraged wider reading. A series of weekly reading lessons was designed to stimulate wide reading, develop reading powers, and establish new reading interests in intermediate grade pupils. This series, entitled "Reading to Find Out," was presented weekly over WRGB-TV, Schenectady. Before the series began, the reading interests and the amount of reading of fifteen hundred fifth-

and sixth-grade pupils were ascertained. The same kind of data was gathered at the end of the series. Additional appraisals of the kind and amount of the pupils' reading were secured from teachers and librarians. The data showed a distinct shift in the children's reading interests toward the interest areas presented in the television series. There was also a much greater amount of reading.

In another study a nationwide survey was conducted on using television to teach children to read. This survey showed that a great variety of schemes related in some way to the use of television for reading instructions are being tried throughout the country. Most of the large-scale projects currently under way concern themselves with direct instruction of children in skills development. There is much less effort directed toward helping the teacher improve her classroom instruction. Furthermore, many educational television stations are doing nothing at all in this important area. The programs reviewed varied widely in their effectiveness. The committee's conclusion here was that the teacher must judge the programs carefully before making use of them.

A wide-scale survey was made of television and book reading habits in nearly two thousand high school students. Significant differences were found in the types of television pro-

*Members of the IRA Television Research Committee are: N. Dale Bryant, University of Houston; Nina Flierl, Delmar, New York; Lyman C. Hunt, The Pennsylvania State University; Paul Witty, Northwestern University; Arthur S. McDonald, Marquette University, *Chairman*.

grams preferred by high achieving students and those preferred by low achieving students. The students with the best grade point averages watched television much less than those with the lowest averages. Good students also reported spending about four times as much leisure time reading books as did poor students. Students in the survey listed 1,150 different book titles. The study findings suggest that television activity and leisure time reading reflect individual willingness and ability to engage in purposeful intellective pursuits. The committee concluded that more needs to be done by schools to improve the ability, taste, and discrimination of students in using communications media.

A study of college students showed that television instruction was the most effective of three methods of instruction in terms of the amount of information remembered and applied. In this study three sections of college students were taught methods of intensive reading. In one section the students were given television instruction; in another section they were given classroom instruction;

and in a third section, only incidental instruction. All sections were taught by the same instructor. Measures of effectiveness showed that the television presentation was the most effective and the incidental instruction the least effective.

A study of preferences of elementary and high school students for television programs showed that the groups differ considerably in their preferences. The study also showed a sharp drop in the amount of time spent televiewing from elementary school to high school. Teacher preferences for television programs were shown to differ from both high school and elementary school choices. This study and another one showed that the average televiewing time for high school students is fourteen hours a week and about twenty-one hours for elementary students.

The Television Committee concluded that television is useful or detrimental to reading in proportion to the use the instructional program makes of it, and to the efforts made by the schools to raise the ability, taste, and discrimination of the students in its use.

(Continued from Page 294)

information is available on the validity of either one of these two tests, it was not possible to determine their relative merits. The clinician cannot assume that these two diagnostic reading tests yield equivalent scores, and he should probably be cautious when using either one for diagnostic purposes until further research yields

more encouraging information about validity.

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What RESEARCH Says to the Reading Teacher

BY

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Another Look at Reading Interests

The interest which people take in what they are reading—the degree, in other words, to which what is read “makes a difference between” them as they were and as they become—is a matter of the greatest concern to the teacher. What is read without interest, if it provides nevertheless for the exercise of skills, may help to train the pupil, but never most efficiently or permanently. And, if the experience does not “matter” to him, he will rarely be impelled to repeat it of his own accord.

Studies in which reader interest is a central factor have been made in great number. Gray (2) in the new edition of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* estimates that almost three hundred such studies have been reported. What seems to be significant is that the tide of investigation has evidently turned away from some of the types of research reported in earlier years. At the same time, new lines of study have not yet been followed far enough to stimulate the teacher to keep thinking about interest and realize that we do not yet know enough about it.

So far as numbers of research studies are concerned, perhaps the greatest attention to interest was paid

in the period from 1938 to 1953. During these years ten to twelve reports a year were produced, on the average. From 1954 on, on the other hand, Gray's annual summaries list only from three to a half dozen a year, and about a third of these are based on studies of interest made in foreign countries. A decline in the mere number of studies might not be significant, of course, if there were other evidence that the earlier findings were being wholeheartedly applied, and that steps were being taken to keep surveys of interest up to date as new reading materials are issued and available. It is the dual purpose of this brief article to summarize some of the trends which can be seen in recent research and to suggest some areas in which application and new exploration seem to lag behind.

A well-established pattern in research is to seek for those generalizations which the teacher, librarian, or clinician can use as guideposts in the selection of books and other materials. Such generalizations are obviously helpful in evaluating new materials and in locating a new answer for the child who asks for something “just like” the one he just read. Many earlier authors attempted to make such generalizations, and their

studies permit Gray, in the article cited above, to refer to the known interest of primary-grade children in animal stories, to trace the development of the differentiated interests of boys and girls in the middle and higher grades, and of course to refer to numerous studies of adult readership of all or parts of newspapers and magazines. Continuing this trend, and providing a good review of these generalizations is the section by Arno Jewett (5) in the Office of Education Bulletin, *Improving Reading in the Junior High School*.

It is true that the generalizations about interests lead to some questions which are hard to answer. As Strang, McCullough, and Traxler remark about the check lists often used to record interests, "One is never quite sure what the checks mean . . . the general categories such as 'adventure' or 'humor' give no information on interests in the many different varieties of adventure and humor" (11, p. 314).

"What is funny" certainly changes with age. In two recent studies, Gunderson (3) looked at the preferences of seven-year-olds and Cappa (1) described sources of appeal in kindergarten books. Because of the limited range of these studies the authors have an opportunity to be very specific. The table in Gunderson's article, citing not only the books liked but the incidents, the words, and the underlying concepts involved, is especially thought-provoking. Similar reports on books or stories shared by groups of children are needed for the later grades.

In the studies just mentioned, pupil reactions to stories were studied, and then the generalizations followed. Such a procedure appealed to this reader, at any rate, as a sounder one than asking the students to evaluate possible areas of interest. A well-known example of a study where actual titles were elicited is contained in the report made by Norvell in 1950 (6). This study was so extensive and so influential that it may in itself have caused other students to feel that the last word had been said on junior and senior high school interests. In this research a long list of books liked was submitted by 50,000 pupils in New York State. As a next step, Norvell described the interests presumably reflected by the preferences.

If further justification is needed for feeling that the expressed interests of children are not always a guide to what they will and do read, some is furnished by the study reported by Rudman (7) and Shores (8). The two reports show quite surprisingly that children may ask about many areas (science is mentioned specifically) but not know how, or not feel attracted, to read in these areas. These findings are also in line with a comment made by Strang, McCullough and Traxler (11, p. 316) that "Few books on vocations are read, possibly because vocational information has not yet been presented in readable form."

Even when the general trend of interest is known, or the interests of a specific group or a particular child have been well described, how do we

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move from this knowledge to the crucial task of bringing the pupil and the book together? Parent, teacher, and librarian may all face this question. Jefferson (4) in an interesting recent study found that parents often knew children's preferences well. Grades three through six were involved in his experiment, in which over one hundred titles were rated.

Of greatest importance are those lists which recognize the full complexity of book selection, as involving not only the interest and other personality factors of the child, but also his reading level and needs. The publication in expanded form of Spache's *Good Reading For Poor Readers* (9) will go far to meet the needs of all groups involved in book selection. This list gives both reading and interest levels for a very large number of trade books, adapted and simplified materials, and gives annotated lists of textbooks, workbooks and games, magazines and newspapers. Included also are valuable chapters discussing book sources, references to other reading lists, and details on the author's readability formula for primary grade materials.

Spache comments at one point: ". . . with each new reluctant reader we must start at the beginning, and that beginning is the reader himself." (9, p. 8) Will this pupil be able to express his wishes? There is evidence that extremes of reaction in interest rating actually do occur, and that pupils are capable of describing these reactions with a good deal of reliability on a six-point inter-

est-aversion scale. This author and others (John H. Coleman and Ann Jungeblut) have under study now some very challenging ratings of reading selections secured from over seventeen hundred children in grades three through seven. One of the clear-cut findings of the investigation is that when reading level, age, sex, and grade placement are all taken into account it is possible to secure a consensus which will materially aid in the final placement of selections in a reading series.

The final notes in an article such as this may well be devoted to suggestions for needed research. We have seen that the history of interest investigations in reading has stressed both the establishment of generalizations about interest and the production of empirical listings of actual books and materials liked by defined groups. Concurrently, there has emerged a body of theory on the place of interest in reading improvement in school, clinic, and recreational situations.

There would seem to be room for special studies of both normal and retarded readers which would relate reading interests to at least two other lines under study — the personality picture of the reader and, more specifically to his other interests.

Cross-disciplinary studies have appeared infrequently to date. Spache has made several contributions to the personality study of retarded readers; one of his latest reports dealing with the Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study appeared in 1957 (10). He has not yet extended his

report to include interest data which might be available for the same pupils involved in this project. One of the few recent research reports which does attempt to describe some of the deeper motives behind reading preferences is the 1956 report by Vandament and Thalman (13) which analyses three types of fantasy in story books, comic books, and magazine materials liked by pupils in grades six and ten. The pupils are further described as to socio-economic group, sex, and urban-to-rural residential area. In the narrower of the two fields mentioned above, a number of general interest studies have included *interest in reading* as an area of activity, but Tyler (12) in her study of the interests of English and American children, using the Dresse and Mooney Interest Inventory for Elementary Grades, is one of the few to study the details of interest patterns in reading and other activities.

The study of reading interests is actually an activity which should be encouraged with all force. It keeps the pupil in the center of our attention in the most intimate possible fashion, recognizing him as a growing, highly motivated organism. This concept should never be lost. Probably the great flexibility of the pupil and the ease with which a healthy, well-adjusted child adopts interests and enthusiasms is our greatest educational aid.

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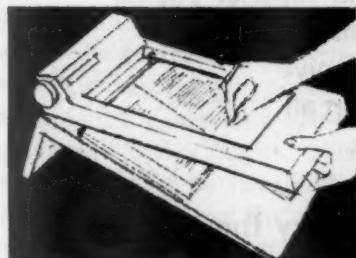
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Hawthorn Center, Northville, Michigan

AARON, I. E. "The Relationship of Selected Measures to Spelling Achievement at the Fourth and Eighth Grade Levels." *Journal of Educational Research*, December, 1959.

To describe the method by which this study was carried on would take more space than we can afford, but its results are reported because the experimenter is oriented not only to the production of better spelling but to the nature of the process by which better spelling may some day be achieved; hence his study deserves careful attention.

The subjects were white fourth- and eighth-grade children in a Georgia school district. Scores in a test of spelling phonetic syllables, scores on a test of syllabication, and scores on the non-language part of the California intelligence test were correlated. All correlations between two variables were significant at the 1 per cent level. The phonetic syllables test made the greatest contribution to the estimation of spelling achievement. The experimenter's conclusion is that phonics skills are related to spelling achievement; and he adds, significantly, "The relationship is not necessarily causal. Further research is needed to determine whether or not the relationship found is causal."

COHN, WERNER. "On the Language of Lower-Class Children." *School Review*, Winter, 1959.

The writer of this article points out that differences in language usage between lower-class children and the public school culture may contribute to the dislike of lower-class children for experiences in school. He considers lower-class language usage as a separate dialect, related to, but distinct from, standard English.

Various authorities have suggested that as language structure is radically simplified (as in lower-class English) through confusion of grammatical forms and greatly limited perception, it becomes impossible to formulate intellectual generalizations in lower-class speech. Since the whole accumulation of formal knowledge is expressed in standard language, one must be familiar with standard language in order to avail oneself of it. The difference in school readiness between lower-class children and those of other classes seems to lie in part in the fact that lower-class children must acquire standard English in school, while children of other classes acquire and use both lower-class forms (to a degree) and standard English. (I find this article thrilling because I agree with it so enthusiastically! For years I have

been pointing out that in order to read even first-grade basic reading materials children must be familiar with what I have been calling "the literary language." MPL) While lower-class language has been used in literature at times to reproduce common speech realistically, and also for greater emotive expressiveness, the differences in the language level reflect differences in the values of the social classes. Dr. Cohn suggests that emphasis on standard English mirrors a moralistic depreciation of lower-class values and fosters class antagonism on the part of the (middle-class) teacher toward lower-class children, thus aggravating their alienation from the public school culture.

While, then, standard English should be taught in public schools to children of all classes, a study of the lower-class language structure would express a respect for it such as is developed by study of a foreign language. Knowing both "languages" would facilitate translation and aid communication among class groups. Since higher-class children know and often use lower-class language it should not be difficult for them to learn to respect it and its value for expressing emotion. (In a recent, still continuing experimental program at Hawthorn Center, in which junior high school children, ages thirteen through fifteen, from primitive homes who were non-readers were enabled to join the ranks of the literate and obtain standardized test scores of the order of grades four and five, it was very apparent that they had first to learn the language of books, even first-and second-grade books, and that up to the

time of the successful experimental program they had not been able to do so. Their extreme concreteness — e.g. a child demonstrated the meaning of the phrase "turned on his heel" by spinning round on his heel several full turns — and their inability to handle what McKee terms "figurative language" continue to stand in the way of understanding textbook materials of even fourth-grade level. One girl, now sixteen, who can score at fifth-grade level on a standardized reading test remarked recently, "Now, I can read all the words, but I still don't know what it all means.")

It is to familiarize children with standard English that we urge the importance of activities like listening to stories and participating in a variety of "approved" language interactions during the pre-reading period. Middle-class children seem to require much less of this activity, and the class difference may account for the extent to which prereading programs are observed to vary in length.

WHIPPLE, GERTRUDE. "The Language of Maps and Globes." *NEA Journal*, November, 1959.

In this brief but excellent article Dr. Whipple stresses such important points as: developing "readiness" for map and globe reading, following the development of ideas from the concrete to the abstract and the specific to the general, developing correct meanings for vocabulary terms like *north* and *south*, so frequently confused with *up* and *down*, stressing the necessity for the use of the globe in forming correct concepts of distance and direction, providing opportunities for and

motivating map-making activities, and learning how to use symbol keys. She points out the difference between map *reading* and map *interpretation*, and reminds us of the many types of maps and their values as teaching devices. Finally, she urges us to show how maps and globes can be used to answer questions arising in daily classroom activities.

RHEAY, MARY LOUISE. "Grading Children's Books." *Elementary English*, November, 1959.

This writer is "agin" grading books — and sure enough, the footnote says she is a librarian, not a teacher. But teachers will go along with her, on grounds she doesn't even mention. She feels that the quality of children's literature is suffering because of writers' efforts to control vocabulary and to write in a style in which choice of words is governed by frequencies and word lists.

The irony of the situation is that it is no more possible to "grade" a book with grade-point precision than it is to accept literally to a tenth of a grade the test results obtained on standardized reading tests. The margins of error result from many factors, especially each child's previous life experience, which we haven't yet been able to measure accurately either. It is reassuring then to remember that children who read confidently seldom think to look at a book to see if it is "my grade level," but instead select for subject-matter, and perhaps for length. The teacher of poor readers sometimes has to come between a child and his choice if the choice is unsuitable, in order to protect him from failure, but good readers

are seldom timid about trying difficult books, even though adults may have a few secret doubts about a twelve-year-old's ability to get much from *War and Peace* or Gibbon's *Decline and Fall*. (When I was reading at avid speed at the age of eight through the books of Dumas the Elder, there was a great deal over my head, I have since discovered. But even now I don't always get everything, I have also discovered. MPL)

BURNS, PAUL C. "A Re-Examination of the Role of Experience Charts." *Elementary English*, November, 1959.

This highly concentrated four-page article would be a good one to use in reading methods courses and inservice courses in reading. When the writer says, "In brief, experience reading should supplement- not supplant- the basic reading program," I respond, "Amen." Among the questions well and truly answered are "What are the objectives in the use of experience charts? What content is worthy of an experience chart? What is the role of the vocabulary in experience charts? What are some good uses of experience charts? What are the chief values and the main weaknesses to be aware of in use of experience charts?" It is my belief that many children have their first experience in creative writing through the guidance of the teacher in this activity. Thank you, Dr. Burns.

AASEN, HELEN B. "A Summer's Growth in Reading." *Elementary School Journal*, November, 1959.

Two groups of fourth graders were given a special six-day motivation experience in June. This program included discussion of books they might

like to read, help in how to select books that were not too difficult, suggestions as to how to record books read, and acceptance from children of suggestions to tally pages read and to omit comic books from their lists. Reading achievement tests were given, and the teacher conferred briefly with each child to interpret the test results. A survey of reading preferences was made and each child was provided with a list of sixteen types of books and asked to check his favorites. From these surveys an annotated list of thirty-five books was compiled; these were reviewed and shown the children briefly, and if a child thought he might like to read any particular one he checked it on his list.

The program also enlisted the help of the school librarian, who helped children learn to use the card catalog, find books on the shelves, and get information from bulletin board displays. The nearest branch library also sent a librarian to show new and attractive books. Two-thirds of the children already had branch library cards, and application forms were distributed to the others. Finally, letters were sent to parents, explaining the project and making suggestions as to how the home could cooperate.

A third group of fourth graders of comparable ability was used as a control. In this group the children knew nothing about the vacation reading project. The experimenter points out a weakness in methodology here.

When school opened in September, the records of the experimental group were collected and forms were given the control group on which they were asked to list their summer reading. The

following day a second form of the reading test used in June was administered to both experimental and control groups. The experimental group gained seven months of reading age during the two summer months; the control group showed no change in score from its average of the previous June. A much higher percentage of the experimental group showed gains in reading — almost 69 per cent as compared with 37.5 per cent of the control group. Twice as many children in the control group showed *losses* in reading scores. The greatest single gain in reading growth was three years five months. The children in the experimental group were enthusiastic about their summer reading experiences.

DEBOER, JOHN J. "What Shall We Teach in High-School English?" *School Review*, Autumn, 1959.

This article emphasizes two functions of high school English instruction, appreciation of literature, and the building of a personal philosophy of life. Such a point of view fails to take into consideration the large number of children whose reading and language skills are inadequate to the high school English curriculum, unless the English teacher also becomes a specialist in high-level interest, low-level reading difficulty, materials. Given a curriculum which permits wide reading at a variety of levels, which uses the classroom as a seminar for the collection and distillation of individual language experiences in reading and other communication areas, the goals of the English program as set forth in this article are fine ones. But the title leads one to expect a broader view. If children are not to

receive assistance in improving their reading skills (through experience with literature) and writing skills (through continued supervision and instruction in basic principles of good written communication) where are they to receive this help? It is well to remember here that in Dorothy Bracken's study reported in 1956 at the IRA meeting in Chicago, 84 per cent of the high school students responding to a questionnaire on reading skills answered "Yes" to the question, "Do you think you need to learn more ways of improving your comprehension?"

CLYSE, JUANITA. "What Do Basic Readers Teach About Jobs?" *Elementary School Journal*, May, 1959.

This writer examined 310 stories in third-grade readers. Thirty-nine per cent of the stories were written around

one specific way of earning a living. In all, thirty-eight occupations were described, but twenty-one of these appeared only once. The most frequently treated were farming, fishing, herding, and teaching.

Incidents in these stories could be used to teach attitudes, skills, and appreciations necessary for vocational success. Twice as many were concerned with attitudes toward others as with attitudes toward self. Social behavior was stressed through descriptions of friendship, affectionate relationships, good manners, and sympathetic interpretation of the behavior of others. Few incidents dealt with economic concerns, such as budgeting, saving, respect for work levels. Little attention was given to helping children understand differences in income.

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Interesting BOOKS for the Reading Teacher

BY

HARRY T. HAHN

Oakland County Schools, Michigan

Conference Reports

Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping. Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading held at the University of Chicago, Volume XXI. Helen M. Robinson, Ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, December, 1959. Pp. 212.

Reading in A Changing Society. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Volume 4. J. Allen Figurel, Ed. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1959. Pp. 264. \$2.00.

These are the latest reports on the proceedings of two popular reading conferences attended by hundreds of teachers and administrators from the United States and Canada.

The important issue at the University of Chicago Conference was to determine the effects of different patterns of grouping on the nature and conduct of reading instruction. It was apparent that the elements of disagreement were not found in the discussions of the goals of reading instruction and the behavior of young people who achieved these goals. However, significant differences appeared to lie in the means for achieving the goals. The proceedings report some of the problems of homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping, new patterns of grouping, criteria for evaluation of grouping

practices, plans for effective classroom instruction, and references to materials used in different groups. No panaceas are suggested for the management of groups at the administrative or classroom level, but the materials are valuable in studying this topic.

The fourth annual International Reading Association Conference at Toronto in May, 1959, was, as usual, a grand affair. More than three thousand participants from Canada and the United States had an opportunity to hear and meet recognized educational leaders and scholars in reading instruction. The four introductory presentations, together with 71 of the 147 papers presented at the conference, are included in the conference proceedings. Many of the diversified topics are certain to be of interest to elementary, secondary, and college teachers.

A compilation of conference proceedings obviously cannot take the place of conference attendance in providing inspiration, stimulation, and an opportunity to share promising practices. However, they provide excellent resources for a review of current thought, trends, and teaching practices.

Young People and Books

HANNA, GENEVA R., and McALLISTER, MARIANA K. *Books, Young Peo-*

ple, and Reading Guidance. New York: Harper, 1960. Pp. 219. \$2.75.

The authors of this brief, interesting text have tried to answer a very challenging question. How can parents, teachers, and librarians make young people of junior and senior high school age enthusiastic readers and guide them to maturity through reading? The many suggestions come from a knowledge of the growth factors, characteristics, interests and problems of adolescents as well as from an understanding of how to bring the right book to the right child at the right time. Librarians, English teachers, and counselors will probably find this text most helpful. It contains many references to specific books as they relate to specific problems. It also provides suggestions for additional reading on the topics discussed.

Reading Disability

SMITH, DONALD E. P., and CARRIGAN, PATRICIA M. *The Nature of Reading Disability*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1959. Pp. 149. \$6.00.

This monograph is a report of a cause for severe reading disability. The research conducted at the University of Michigan focuses attention on an understanding of endocrinology, an area that, prior to this text, does not appear important in most inquiries on why children cannot read. While extensive supportive investigations are needed, Smith and Carrigan's conclusions regarding the implications for an understanding of reading disability warrant attention:

1. Severe disability which resists correction may be primarily a functional rather than a structural problem. It is most likely

caused by abnormal synaptic transmission in certain nonreaders and by a failure to achieve adequate long-term (reverberatory) activity of neural systems in others. . . .

2. Synaptic transmission and neural activity generally appear to be influenced by endocrine functioning. Thus, therapy at the glandular level seems indicated.

3. Failure to achieve normally in reading despite instruction is, by and large, a physical problem rather than an instructional one for some children. The finger-pointing of the recent years, usually aimed at the public schools, is to some extent unjustified.

4. Reading disability appears to be a medical problem. It is seldom recognized as "illness" because its victims appear relatively normal. But the reading problem, the "subclinical" case, is at least as deserving of medical attention as is a bone fracture. The anxiety and, oftentimes, grief generated by school failure is such that it must be recognized by physicians.

The complete psychological test battery used by the authors is included in the text.

SCHUBERT, DELWYN G. *The Doctor Eyes the Poor Reader*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1957. Pp. 88.

This book, which is oriented essentially to the physician in general practice, provides a brief but generally comprehensive survey of reading disability —its nature, its etiology, its detection and diagnosis, and finally, its improvement by remedial methods.

Throughout his discussion, the author, very commendably, emphasizes that there is no single cause of reading disability. Rather, the roots of reading difficulty may be found in a multiplicity of factors, all highly interrelated. The roles of visual and hearing defects, of speech problems, neurological conditions, dominance, emotional disturbance, and educational factors are considered and their relation and importance to reading disability are evaluated. Doctor Schubert reviews the pertinent research in each of these vital areas and then provides excellent sec-

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tions summarizing the significant conclusions that can be made at this time. A chapter is devoted to the role of the medical consultant — his responsibility in the detection of reading disability, the importance of his working cooperatively with other specialists, and the ways in which the general practitioner may be of help to parents of retarded readers. Following a rather poor chapter which evaluates various approaches to reading instruction the author concludes with a somewhat irrelevant section illustrating methods by which the doctor can increase his own reading rate and level of comprehension.

The book's major weakness, however, is its attempt to cover such a broad area as reading disability in just eighty-eight pages. For example, the section on emotional disturbance is woefully inadequate, with important psychoanalytic contributions not mentioned at all.

For the general practitioner, the clinical psychologist, and for others who may be novices in the field of reading disability, Doctor Schubert's book will provide a wealth of illuminating information, but to the educator and to the reading specialist it will be sadly disappointing. — JULES C. ABRAMS, *Temple University*.

Evaluation

Evaluation: A Memorandum for Curriculum Workers. Board of Education of the City of New York, Bureau of Curriculum Research, New York: Curriculum Center, 130 West 55th Street. 25c, 61 pp. + 2.

This pamphlet is concerned with the

nature and function of evaluation and with specific evaluation techniques. In addition, it attempts in twenty-seven pages to explain the complexities of the analysis of data, sampling, and other topics in statistics.

It is questionable whether this booklet will be much help to the curriculum worker who is unfamiliar with evaluation or statistics. Perhaps by reading it one will be encouraged to consult some of the excellent references listed in the bibliography.

For the person with some sophistication in evaluation and measurement, *Evaluation: A Memorandum for Curriculum Workers* is overly simple, overly general, sometimes incorrect, and often inappropriate for students of educational problems. Here is an excellent example of how short-cuts to an understanding of evaluation can confuse rather than clarify.

—BERJ HAROOTUNIAN,
University of Delaware.

A Practical Resource

DOLCH, EDWARD WILLIAM. *Teaching Primary Reading*, Third ed. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1960. Pp. 429. \$3.50.

The second edition of this popular text published in 1950 has been reorganized. Essentially, however, the third edition is similar to the earlier one. It is still an excellent resource for primary teachers who are seeking many practical ideas and guidance in reading readiness, chart work, grouping, phonics, methods of conducting a reading lesson, advising parents, and remedial reading.

Nostalgia

DUGGINS, LYDIA A. *One For the Little Boy*. New York: Exposition Press, 1959. Pp. 122.

One For the Little Boy is a short, well written adult book, one which will bring memories flooding back for those in the generation which matured during the depression. The story centers upon the three Hunter children—Harry, Stephen, and Cathy—as they grow toward maturity in a Tennessee mountain town. The youngsters meet the universal experiences of life, death, disappointment, anger, frustration, fear, joy, and wonder, with the individualized responses so delightful in children. Adults may live again that initial longing for school, a longing which sometimes dissipates and eventually disappears. The events described in the story serve as reminders to grownups that their adult status was not easily attained. Parents particularly should find solace in Dr. Duggins' descriptions of adult-child tactical and strategic operations, operations which, as the child grows up, gradually place him on the opposite side in this age-old tug-of-war. Perhaps of even greater importance is the book's value as a sociological source for those millions of Americans who have known little suffering or want.

—THOMAS D. HORN,
The University of Texas

Thank You!

ZIRBES, LAURA. *Spurs to Creative Teaching*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. 354. \$5.75.

It takes a heap of living to make a house a home and it takes a heap of experience to write a good book. Laura Zirbes has written a book, her first book, and it reflects a heap of experience, plus insight into sound teaching practices, and an understanding of children. As Emeritus Professor of Education she provides us with just the kind of book one should expect from a wise and learned person.

The many students who have sat at her feet, as well as the many, many more who have heard her lecture only a time or two, will recognize immediately the Laura Zirbes they admire and respect. She has written this, her book, with the sparkle, the warmth, and the soundness of an astute person who has lived a life dedicated to the proposition that man is creative by nature and that good teaching fosters courageous initiative or creative self-direction.

Every teacher should read the entire book. Every reading teacher should read a second time Chapters VII and VIII. The seventh chapter deals with the creative aspects of the language arts. The eighth chapter defines creative approaches to reading. Doing all this though is not enough. Every reading teacher should read again and again Chapter IX, "What Creative Teachers Do About Extensive Reading."

Then when you have done all this reading sit down and write a letter to Laura Zirbes and say, "Thank you, Laura Zirbes, for writing this book." RUSSELL G. STAUFFER, *University of Delaware*.



PERSONALITY PATTERNS IN ORAL READING

GLADYS NATCHEZ shows how overt behavior in the reading situation can be studied to diagnose reactions of dependence, aggression, and withdrawal in children. Dr. Natchez, a lecturer in diagnosis and treatment of reading disability at the City College of New York, drew her material from many years of actual teaching and classroom research.

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THE CLIP SHEET

Mary Elisabeth Coleman

University of Pennsylvania

Toward Understanding

Much of the benefit derived from the 1950 White House Conference on Children and Youth stemmed from the local and state conferences that preceded and followed the national meeting. Believing that "books are among the most subtle and profound tools that society offers the individual for coping with life," the Children's Book Council has made available an annotated bibliography of recent literature about children's books in areas to be considered at the Conference.

The bibliography, compiled by Dorothy M. Broderick, reports books, magazine articles, and bibliographies in five sections: Character Development and the Acquisition of Values through Books; Books Aid the Physically, Mentally, and Emotionally Handicapped; Intergroup Relations; Toward a Life of Creativity; and Youth against the Community.

The bibliography appeared in the December issue of *Junior Libraries*, and is available also from the Council. *The Opportunities That Books Offer*. The Children's Book Council, 50 West 53rd St., New York 19, N. Y. Single copies free when accompanied by a stamped, self-addressed envelope. Quantities at cost.

Children's Magazines

A magazine that arrives periodi-

cally by mail, with the child's name on the wrapper, is quite an interest catcher. Some of us who are old enough remember how schedules had to be set up for the children in the family when the *Youth's Companion* or *St. Nicholas* arrived each month. Children's magazines belong in classrooms and in the elementary school library. The February, 1960, issue of *Childhood Education* has an annotated list of children's magazines and newspapers in the column "Among the Magazines." Lucile Lindberg is the column editor.

National Library Week

April 3-9, 1960, is designated as National Library Week. The National Book Committee, Inc., and the American Library Association are cooperating in sponsoring the program. A special issue of *Elementary English*, one of the publications of the National Council of Teachers of English, will be devoted to National Library Week.

School Libraries

"Never underestimate the power of a woman" — still less, of a group of women. The Delaware Division of the American Association of University Women, in coordination with the State Department of Public Instruction and the Delaware State Education Association, sponsored the

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The principal aim of this new book is to help the foreign student of English build his vocabulary through reading and word study. A combination reader-study book, the text is divided into two parts which may be used simultaneously or separately.

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Word study is taken up in the second part of the book. The building of English words through derivation (in the descriptive rather than the historical sense) is discussed. The four major parts of speech are set up objectively, and the student learns from explanations and drills how to derive nouns from verbs, verbs from nouns, adjectives from nouns, adjectives from verbs, etc.

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PUBLICATIONS

preparation of a pamphlet to serve as a guide in planning school libraries. The pamphlet, prepared by professional librarians, was mailed to boards of education, superintendents, principals, and librarians of all Delaware schools. *Planning School Libraries in the State of Delaware*. American Association of University Women, 1304 Delaware Ave., Wilmington 6, Del.

Book Award

The Dorothy Canfield Fisher Children's Book Award, selected by the votes of children in grades four through eight of the Vermont schools, was given to Margaret Leighton for *Comanche of the Seventh*, published by Ariel Press.

For Study Skills

Wouldn't it be convenient to have the same volume of an encyclopedia in the hands of each child when the group is working on some of the study skills associated with reference reading? This is unlikely, but the publishers of the *World Book Encyclopedia* have made available seven reprints of articles from that encyclopedia. The titles are: Asia, Earth and Star, Horse, How a Bill Becomes Law, Library, Literature for Children, and Space Travel and Guided Missile. Single copies are available to teachers and librarians without charge. Ask for a price list for copies in quantity from the World Book Encyclopedia Information Service, Field Enterprises Educational

Corporation, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago 54, Ill.

Bibliographies

A Survey of Corrective and Remedial Reading Materials, compiled by Dora Reese. This includes materials for elementary and secondary levels. The current edition is a 1959 revision of a previous survey. Order from The Bookstore, Eastern Montana College of Education, Billings, Mont. \$0.75.

"Children's Books of 1958-59" in the *NEA Journal of November*, 1959. The list was compiled by staff members of the Los Angeles City Schools Library and the Los Angeles Library for the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association. For each book there is a brief annotation, the suggested age or grade range for which the book is appropriate, publisher, price, and type of binding available. Lists such as this are a valuable service to small schools with limited funds for book purchases.

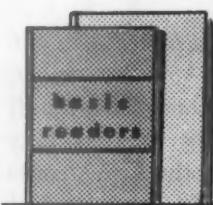
Values in Reading

Schools which are trying to acquaint the community with the imperative need for variety and abundance of good reading materials in the educational program might promote the reading of Chapter IX, "What Creative Teachers Do About Extensive Reading," in *Spurs to Creative Teaching*, by Laura Zirbes. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959, \$5.75.

BALANCE YOUR READING PROGRAM



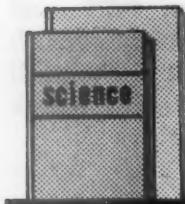
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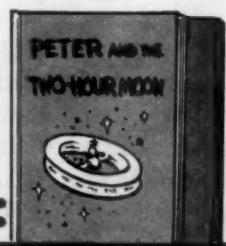
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PRESIDENT'S REPORT

BY

A. STERL ARTLEY

President, International Reading Association

THE WINTER meeting of the Board of Directors of IRA met in Atlantic City, February 13 and 14. I shall transmit to you briefly certain decisions reached by the Board that you will find of interest.

First, the decision was made to hold the 1962 annual international conference in San Francisco. The Board again gave recognition to the belief that various sections of the continent should have the opportunity and privilege of serving as hosts to the annual convention. You will keep in mind, of course, that the 1961 meeting will be held in St. Louis.

The Board also decided to increase the number of issues of *THE READING TEACHER* from four to five, beginning in September, 1960. This change, as well as the addition of the *Newsletter*, reflects the healthy financial status of the organization. It also reflects the interest of the Board in providing the membership with increased services as readily as it is possible. Moreover, several other projects and activities are currently under study by the Board.

Dr. Strong, Organization Chairman, reported that since September 1, twelve new IRA councils have been formed. Three of these are in Canada, eight in the United States, and one in Puerto Rico. In addition,

four more councils are in the process of having their charters granted. Twenty-four requests for organizational materials have been filled, two of these requests coming from New Zealand. It is gratifying to observe the continued interest in this organized effort to improve reading instruction.

By this time you have received the program of the Fifth Annual Conference being held in New York City on May 6 and 7. We trust that you will find the program offerings of sufficient interest and scope to meet your varied needs. Dr. McCallister, the Executive Secretary-Treasurer, appeals for your pre-registration as a means of saving your time as well as reducing the amount of his clerical work at the time of the conference.

Dr. Chall, Chairman of the Pre-Conference Institute, reports that applications for the one-day meeting exceeded all expectations. As a result a number of people will be disappointed in having their applications returned, since attendance is being limited to one hundred. Since it appears that this feature of the program is eminently successful, the Board will need to give consideration to continuing and possibly extending this type of activity.

We shall be looking forward to welcoming all of you in New York.

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by STELLA M. COHN

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INTERNATIONAL READING
ASSOCIATION**

Schools and reading clinics in and around New York City welcome the guests who plan to visit as part of the Conference activities.

Elementary Schools

The elementary schools of the New York City public school system have programs in individualized reading, in remedial reading, and also developmental reading which have been suggested as programs to visit. There are about two hundred teachers of remedial reading in elementary schools. This service provides a small-group individualized program for children of normal intelligence who are retarded a year or more in reading. The children receive an hour's instruction daily. The remedial reading teacher also functions as a reading consultant for her school.

Special Reading Services. As of the fall of 1959 Special Reading Services has seven reading clinics providing for an integration of instructional and clinical service. Each clinic has a full time psychologist, a full time psychiatric social worker, a part-time psychiatrist, three reading teachers, and a clerk.

Special Reading Services provides what is essentially a team approach, both clinical and educational, in understanding and meeting the needs of the children. Pediatric and ophthalmological examinations are given to each child. Speech diagnosis and treatment are provided for all the children. Research programs are carried on by graduate students from the colleges.

The instructional program is not remedial in the narrow sense of any system or method of teaching. Children

are seen in small groups for two one-hour sessions a week. Teacher training is an essential part of the program.

Junior High Schools

The Junior High School Division (Grades 7, 8, 9) of the New York City Board of Education has reading programs in the following areas: (1) Developmental skills and appreciation in reading literature. (2) The team approach to the teaching of reading skills in all subject areas. (Social Studies, Mathematics, etc.) (3) Corrective reading (small class instruction). (4) Reading for groups of pupils who have been retained in grade because of reading retardation. (5) Reading skills for pupils for whom English is a second language.

Senior High School Program

Academic high schools. In the academic high schools the reading program may be directed toward the slow learner. It is also planned for the underachiever in reading — the student with a normal or better than normal I.Q. who is retarded two or more years in reading. The reading period may supplement a regularly scheduled English period or it may be the English period, with an especially heavy emphasis on reading. The extra reading period may come daily or two or three times a week.

Students use reading workbooks and/or other commercial materials, with stress on improved speed as well

as comprehension. They use the many abridged forms of the classics and also teen-age fiction for free reading. There is special stress on teaching vocabulary in context and on the use of the dictionary. If possible, the classes are limited to twenty-five pupils to allow some individual work.

Vocational high schools. Remedial reading instruction in these schools is planned for three groups of students. Priority is given, first, to pupils of normal intelligence who are two years or more retarded in reading. The second group is composed of pupils of 80 to 90 I.Q. who are two or more years below expectancy in reading. Finally, schools may organize classes for the very seriously retarded, those below 4.5 reading grade level.

Remedial reading classes have a maximum register of 20. In general, pupils are assigned to these classes for an entire school year. Direct instruction in reading is provided through graded texts and through practical materials prepared by the teachers. A "free reading" program is organized through classroom libraries and the school library.

While the emphasis is mainly on reading, attempts are made to integrate instruction with that in other areas in English — oral and written discussion, for example.

The City College Clinic

The City College Remedial Reading Service is part of the college's Educational Clinic. Although a large number of children are treated each year, it is not primarily a service agency, but a center for the training of teachers and psychologists. Other functions include consultation with schools and demonstration of methods and materials to students and also to teachers who visit the clinic. The remedial treatment is carried on for the most part by graduate students who are either presently engaged in teaching or who are preparing to be teachers or psychologists.

They are all closely supervised by members of the clinic staff.

The staff of the Remedial Reading Service engages in many kinds of research activities. Recently the clinic has developed diagnostic techniques suitable for use by teachers, and the staff have also worked with teachers in developing practical procedures for treating disabilities in the classroom.

Hofstra College Reading Clinic

The Hofstra College Reading Clinic offers instruction in remedial, developmental, or corrective reading and functions on a year-round basis. Instruction is provided at all levels (primary through adult). Instruction is on a small group or individual basis, arranged according to the needs and abilities of the pupil. Most classes are scheduled for hourly sessions, twice a week after regular school hours, or for two hours on Saturday, depending on pupil needs. The period of instruction is determined by the progress made by the student. During the summer pupils come for an hour and a half daily for a period of thirty hours.

Prior to entrance a diagnostic test battery is given, which includes an individual intelligence test, an informal reading inventory, standardized oral and silent reading tests, word analysis tests, and visual and hearing examinations, plus an intake interview and post-testing conference. This program is offered on a fee basis.

New York University Institute

The Reading Institute provides instruction in reading from 9 A.M. to 1.15 P.M. daily to groups of students severely retarded in reading. Another program is offered on Saturdays only, from 9 to 12 noon, during which instruction is also given to small groups. All levels except adult attend these two types of classes. Adult instruction is provided in the evenings from 6 to 8 P.M. Individual instruction is given in the afternoon.

Queens College Clinic

The Queens College Educational Clinic is a child guidance clinic whose primary function is that of a demonstration center for courses in education. About half of the children studied have reading difficulties. The staff includes psychologists, social workers, psychiatrists, and a pediatrician. A small remedial case load provides supervised experience for graduate students.

Visitors may be interested in (a) the nature of the diagnostic examinations and sample case studies, (b) the one-way mirror observational set-up, (c) the collection of remedial materials, and (d) discussion of the remedial program.

Elementary Center, Teachers College

The Elementary Reading Center of Teachers College at Columbia University provides diagnostic and tutoring services for pupils of elementary school age. A diagnosis involves a thorough appraisal of the child's reading abilities and disabilities as determined by observation, reading tests, and other appropriate procedures. Although some work is done with small groups, most of the children are tutored individually after regular school hours. All work in the center is done by Teachers College graduate students as part of their training practicum under the supervision of the staff members. Fees charged are minimal; they may be adjusted on a sliding scale or waived entirely.

Little Red School House (Private)

At the Little Red School House formal instruction in reading is delayed until children are in the second grade. No traditional commercial aids or tests for reading readiness are used. The school depends on trips, the use of

home and school experiences of individual children and small groups of children. Building blocks are used as a major tool for expression of ideas. The core of experiences is knowledge of how a city could be built on an island of rock and how we get what we need.

In the second grade the teacher divides children into small groups according to their readiness for reading experiences. There are at least twenty small sets of pre-primers and primers readily available to the children as they begin reading. No two groups of children read from the same set. As soon as a child shows a desire and ability to go ahead individually he is permitted to do so, but remains in a small group during the year. The teacher checks on the individual reading and helps the child choose his next book.

From the third through the sixth grade, the reading ability in any group is so wide that even small groups for reading do not meet as often as in most schools. Reading texts are used with the children who need them and are gradually discarded as children outgrow their usefulness. Much encouragement is given to recreational reading.

Libraries

The library program of the New York City Board of Education is basic to the school's reading program. On the elementary level there are twenty-five District Librarians who serve as consultants to the elementary school libraries in their districts. There are librarians assigned to each of the Junior and Senior High Schools, all working under the direction of the Bureau of Libraries. Independent reading and research are encouraged as well as reading and research which grow out of the classroom activities and lead back into them.

FIFTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

May 5-7, 1960

Hotel Statler-Hilton and Manhattan Center, New York City

THEME: *New Frontiers in Reading*

Thursday May 5 9:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M. School and Clinic Visits in the New York City Area
7:00 P.M. to 9:00 P.M. Conference Registration
7:30 P.M. to 9:30 P.M. Meeting of Assembly of Delegates

Friday May 6 8:00 A.M. to 8:30 P.M. Registration
9:30 A.M. to 11:30 P.M. General Meeting—Manhattan Center

Chairman—A. Sterl Artley, University of Missouri, President of the International Reading Association

Welcome—Ethel Huggard, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York City
Jerome S. Bruner, Harvard University—

“Broadening Horizons Through Reading”

William S. Gray, University of Chicago—

“Expanding Frontiers in the Teaching of Reading”

2:00 P.M. to 4:00 P.M. Section Meetings

THEME: *Differentiating Instruction to Provide for the Needs of the Learners*

Primary Grades. Chairman, Henry Bamman, Sacramento State College
William Sheldon, Syracuse University — “... Through Organizational Practices”
Nila B. Smith, New York University — “... Through Methods and Materials”

Intermediate Grades. Chairman, J. Louis Cooper, University of Connecticut
Margaret Robinson, Toronto Public Schools — “... Through Organizational Practices”
Constance McCullough, San Francisco State College — “... Through Methods and Materials”

Secondary Levels. Chairman, Elizabeth Simpson, Illinois Institute of Technology

John DeBoer, University of Illinois — “... Through Organizational Practices”
Margaret Early, Syracuse University — “... Through Methods and Materials”

College and Adult Levels. Chairman, William Eller, University of Iowa
George B. Schick, Purdue University — “New Frontiers in Teaching Reading to College Groups”

Paul D. Leedy, New York University — “New Frontiers in Teaching Reading to Adult Groups”

Administrators, Reading Supervisors and Consultants. Chairman,
Morton Botel, Bucks County Public Schools, Levittown, Pennsylvania
Earle W. Wiltse, Maine Township High School, Des Plaines, Illinois — “Strengths and Limitations of Pre-Service Training Programs of Teachers of Reading”

Dorothy Lampard, University of Alberta — "Problems Faced by Teacher Training Institutions in Pre-Service Training of Reading Teachers — in Canada"
Robert Karlin, Southern Illinois University — "Problems Faced by Teacher Training Institutions in Pre-Service Training of Reading Teachers — in the United States"

Clinical. Chairman, Donald Cleland, University of Pittsburgh

Carl Delacato, Chestnut Hill Academy, Philadelphia — "Neuro-Psychological Factors as Causes of Reading Disabilities"
Donald E. P. Smith, University of Michigan — "Neuro-Chemical Factors as Causes of Reading Disabilities"
Newell C. Kephart, Purdue University — "Brain Damage as a Cause of Reading Disabilities"

Co-Sponsored Meeting of National Council of Teachers of English and the International Reading Association. Ralph Staiger, Chairman, Mississippi Southern University

Participants to be announced.

4:30 P.M. to 5:30 P.M. Reception

Friday Evening (No meetings scheduled)

Saturday 8:00 A.M. to 11:00 A.M. Registration

May 7 9:00 A.M. to 11:15 A.M. Section Meetings

THEME: Reading and Mental Health

Elementary Grades. Chairman, Lynette Saine, Atlanta University

Sister Mary Theophenia, C.S.S.F., Archdiocese of Milwaukee — "Impact of Reading on the Personal Development of Children"
Anne McKillop, Teachers College, Columbia University — "Influence of Personal Factors on the Reading Development of Children"

Secondary Levels. Chairman, Joseph Underwood, Lee's Summit Public Schools, Missouri

David Russell, University of California — "Impact of Reading on the Personal Development of Young People"
Ruth Strang, Teachers College, Columbia University — "Influence of Personal Factors on the Reading Development of Young People"

College and Adult Levels. Chairman, Byron Van Roekel, Michigan State University

"Achieving Personal Maturity Through Reading by . . ."
Walter Pauk, Cornell University — . . . Developing an Interest in Reading"
Phillip Shaw, Brooklyn College — . . . Recognizing and Constructing Meaning"
Charles Letson, Montclair Public Schools, New Jersey — . . . Establishing Purposes for Reading"
Joseph Gainsburg, New York City Public Schools — . . . Reacting to Ideas"
Brother Leonard Courtney, F.S.C., St. Mary's College, Winona, Minnesota — . . . Giving Attention to Kinds of Material Read"

Clinical. Chairman, Russell Stauffer, University of Delaware

Sally B. Childs, New York City — "Contribution of the Phonetic Approach to Developmental and Remedial Reading Instruction"
George Spache, University of Florida — "Limitations of the Phonetic Approach to Developmental and Remedial Reading Instruction"

Research Section. Chairman, Theodore Clymer, University of Minnesota
E. Elona Sochor, Temple University — "Current Developments in Evaluating Reading Abilities"

Donald D. Durrell, Boston University — "Evaluation of a Program of Differential Instruction in the Intermediate Grades"

Jack A. Holmes, University of California — "The Substrate-Factor Theory of Reading: Some Experimental Evidence"

Discussants: Nila B. Smith, New York University

Sister Mary Julitta, O.S.F., Cardinal Stritch College

Television Section. Chairman, Arthur McDonald, Marquette University
N. Dale Bryant, University of Houston — "Relation Between Classroom Teaching and Television Teaching"

Nina Flierl, Delmar Public Schools, New York — "Using Television Interests to Build Reading"

Sister Mariam, O.P., Archdiocese of Chicago — "Can the Teacher Improve Pupil Discrimination in Television and Reading?"

Co-Sponsored Meeting of National Council of Teachers of English and the International Reading Association. Chairman, Ruth Strickland, Indiana University

"Building More Effective Reading Programs . . ."

Muriel Crosby, Wilmington Public Schools — . . . Through Storytelling and Creative Dramatics"

Leo Fay, University of Indiana — . . . Through Teacher Experimentation"

G. Robert Carlsen, University of Iowa — . . . Through More Appropriately Selected Literature"

Reading on the International Scene. Chairman, Murdock K. MacDonald, Toronto Public Schools

Marion Jenkinson, University of Alberta — ". . . in Canada"

John Reagan, Stamford College Institute, Niagara Falls — ". . . in Germany"

Ramonita Santos de Garcia, University of Puerto Rico — ". . . in Puerto Rico"

12:00 M. to 2:00 P.M. **Conference Luncheon**

A. Sterl Artley, Chairman

Invocation—James M. McCallister, International Reading Association, Chicago
Presentation of Speakers—Christine Gilbert, Manhasset Public Schools, Long Island

Ingri and Edgar Parin d'Aulaire

Eleanor Estes

2:30 P.M. to 4:00 P.M. **Group Meetings**

THEME: Reading in Relation to the Total Curriculum

Group I. Chairman, Paul Witty, Northwestern University

Emmett A. Betts, Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pennsylvania — "The Nature and Function of Basic Reading Instruction"

Panel: Guy L. Bond, University of Minnesota

Jeannette Veatch, The Pennsylvania State University

Kate Miano, New York City Public Schools

Group II. Chairman, Leo Fay, University of Indiana

Arthur I. Gates, Teachers College, Columbia University — "The Nature and Function of Reading in the Content Areas"

Panel: E. Elona Sochor, Temple University

M. Agnella Gunn, Boston University

Arno Jewett, U. S. Office of Education

Group III. Chairman, Helen Huus, University of Pennsylvania

Nancy Lerrick — "The Nature and Function of the Recreational Reading Program"

Panel: Florence Cleary, Wayne State University

Lillian Batchelor, Philadelphia Public Schools

Mabel Altstetter, DeLand, Florida

Group IV. Chairman, Frederick Westover, University of Alabama

Mildred Dawson, Sacramento State College — "The Role of Reading in Relation to Other Areas of Communication"

Panel: Mildred Letton Wittick, Paterson State College, New Jersey

Althea Beery, Cincinnati Public Schools

Helen Macintosh, U. S. Office of Education

Group V. Chairman, Gertrude Whipple, Detroit Public Schools

Helen M. Robinson, University of Chicago — "The Role of Special Services in the Reading Program"

Panel: Grace Walby, Winnipeg Public Schools, Manitoba

Albert J. Harris, Queens College

Sister Mary Julietta, O.S.F., Cardinal Stritch College

Florence Beaumont, New York City Public Schools

FIRST PRE-CONFERENCE INSTITUTE

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

Thursday, May 5, 1960

Hotel Statler-Hilton

THEME: *Neurological and Psychiatric Considerations in Reading Retardation*

PROGRAM

9:30 A.M. to 11:00 A.M. Ralph D. Rabinovitch, M.D., Hawthorn Center, Northville, Michigan

11:00 A.M. to 1:00 P.M. Discussion Groups

3:00 P.M. to 5:30 P.M. Question and Answer Panel

8:00 P.M. to 9:30 P.M. Discussion Groups — "Implementing What Has Been Learned"

A full-day Pre-Conference Institute with limited attendance for those with specialized interests. This meeting will have special appeal to clinic directors, remedial specialists, reading consultants, college instructors, researchers, and administrators. The Institute will be limited to 100 participants who have registered in advance. (Deadline for submitting applications, March 1, 1960.) Registration fee, \$7.00.

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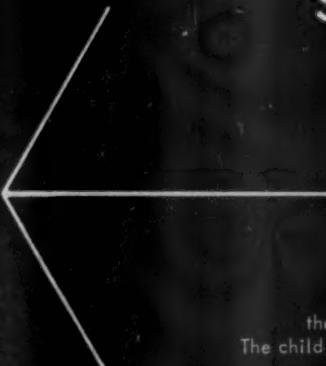
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